The Nation.

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The Week.

THE McKinley Administrative Customs Bill, which passed the House on Saturday, is, we think, the wickedest measure that has passed that body since the Fugitive Slave Law. Like that act, it abolishes trial by jury. It goes one step further, for it takes away the citizen's right to any kind of trial in a court of law on a question of fact respecting the disposition of his property. When this measure, or one substantially like it, was before the Senate on the 18th of March, 1888, Senator Edmunds of Vermont offered an amendment giving the importer the right of appeal to the Circuit Court of the United States, and upon this motion he said:

"I must ask the indulgence of the Senate for a moment, because the amendments which I have proposed to this section are, in my opinion, extremely vital and important to its being made capable of standing the test of any kind of constitutional validity.

"As the section now stands, the decision of the appraisers as to the identity of the goods, whether falling under one section of the law or another, or whether the law they apply to them has been repealed or not, is absolutely final. Their decision as respects the *value* of the property, which is within their jurisdiction as appraisers, *may be made final.* We all understand that. But I have never yet heard of a law, or of a court that upheld a law of any such nature, that authorized any executive officer *to possess really the whole taxing power of the country,* which the Constitution imposes on Congress. Congress must select the objects of taxation and describe them. The executive must execute that act of Congress upon the things described and not upon something else. When they have found the things described, then the law-making department may repose in them the final judgment as to *how much they are worth*, and then the law places the rate to be affixed to that valuation.

"Now, this section as it stands, I say, leaves to the final decision of the appraisers every question of fact concerning the goods submitted to them, whether they fall under one law or another law; whether they are, for instance, silks or woollens; whether they are cottons or leather. . . . You have got, therefore, as I suppose, a 'case,' in the language of the Constitution, in a court of justice of original jurisdiction, in which that court has no jurisdiction whatever over any question of fact whatever—which is ridiculous and absurd. There cannot be a case pending, a controversy, in a court of original jurisdiction, without one party, or the other, or both parties being entitled to prove the grounds upon which they invoke the intervention of the court and its judgment on the facts as they may be found."

This bill is fraught with more damage to the commerce and prosperity of New York than any other that has been before Congress in twenty-five years. Yet it was a Senator from New York (Mr. Hiscock) who undertook to answer Mr. Edmunds, by saying that the appraisers never would decide that woollens were silks, or that cottons were leather, and that therefore no wrong would be done and no constitutional guarantee would be infringed. To him Mr. Edmunds replied in these words:

"It is always interesting to hear Senators who have their hearts set on accomplishing a given purpose intimate that they do not care so much about the Constitution, and express the hope and belief that the Constitution will never be found to stand in the way of doing anything that they believe to be for the public good, and that no court can be got to so interpret that Constitution or a law as to deprive the sweet will of the people, expressed through constitutional channels, of the power of doing exactly what they want to do. That is not my way of reading the Constitution."

The bill is a measure to put the importing business in the category of crimes, and then to deprive the importer of the protection of the judicial tribunals of the country. Tariff legislation has got into such a snarl by reason of the quarrels of the protected classes among themselves, that it is very doubtful whether any duties can be augmented. But if new difficulties can be put in the way of the importer, that will answer the purpose. Moreover, if the decisions of courts can be eliminated from customs administration, it will be easier to carry out the new policy of increasing duties by Treasury decision, as was done in the worsted case and in the hat-trimmings case. And this wicked and unconstitutional measure is passed at the very time when we are protesting against the exclusion of our pork from Germany and France by their Treasury decisions. What shall we have to say if they in turn adopt the McKinley bill, and rule out everything that we have to sell by the neat device of appraising boards from whom no appeal can be taken?

The subsidy-beggars were on hand at Washington last week, and all of them had much complaint to make about "tramp steamers." A tramp steamer is any steamer not running at regular and stated periods on a particular line, but taking cargo wherever it is offered. All, or nearly all, sailing vessels accordingly are tramps, since they habitually take cargo where it is offered, carry it to its destination, and then pick up another and carry that, and then another, and so they go on tramping around the world. Really any steamer is a tramp that is competing with *us*. If we can give him a bad name, and create a prejudice against him, so much the better. If we can liken him to a footpad who goes through the country doing no work, sleeping in barns, robbing henroosts, and frightening the farmers' wives, we may induce ignorant people who are poorer than ourselves, to contribute something out of their taxes to help us to compete with the tramp. Reflecting people will, perhaps, be able to discern a slight inconsistency in the argument which begins by asking subsidies to furnish facilities for ocean commerce, and ends by complaining that we have too many facilities now. Tramp steamers are odious for the very reason that they furnish these facilities. Another inconsistency may be detected in the ingenuous statement of Mr. J. M. Lachlan, of the Brazil Line, that his company has not made a cent during the entire period of its existence, but that it has refused $43,000 tendered to it for carrying the United States mails during that time. A company that throws $43,000 over its shoulder ought not to appear before Congress *in forma pauperis.*

Every man who goes to Washington to get himself billeted on the taxpayers has a neat demonstration in his pocket to show that what he wants will not cost the people of the United States more than two or three cents per head, and that therefore his demand is quite reasonable. Even the Sugar Trust are prepared to show that the duty on refined sugar is a mere flea-bite to each person, and not worth making a fuss about. And now come the quinine-manufacturers, or the *Tariff League Bulletin* for them, showing in the last number of that paper that a duty of 20 per cent. on quinine would be only a trifle to each person in the United States, supposing them all to have chills once a year. "Few sick persons," it says, "take so much as one ounce avoirdupois of quinine, while the average for the whole population is only 28 3-10 grains; even if an ounce of quinine were taken at a cost of 31½ cents, and the sick man paid a duty of 20 per cent., it would be only 6 3-10 cents." The argument made by the high-tariff organ in favor of a reënactment of the "blood tax" is not very hearty. Indeed, it reads like the appeal of those Italian beggars (in the good old times of Pius IX., of blessed memory) who used to assail all persons indiscriminately at the doors of churches, simply in the way of business, offering to show the most attractive sores and the most engaging deformities on the chance of there being somebody in the crowd who did not understand the game. The organ may as well spare its breath. The blood tax will not be reënacted even at the low cost of 6 3-10 cents for every victim of the grip.

The brutality which the spoils system engenders among its advocates, upon which we have so often commented, finds a fresh and striking illustration in the latest attack upon the Civil-Service Commission. The efforts by which the spoilsmen endeavored to prevent an honest and faithful man from getting employment, though he had been in the public service for twenty years, and had a family dependent upon him for support, were worthy of savages. The man's only offence had been that he had, under official compulsion, given evidence that his superior officer was unfaithful to his public trust. The final attempt of his pursuers to bring discredit upon the Commission for their manly course in getting employment for him, has led to an exposure of the whole case, which is a valuable object-lesson in politics.

The report which Mr. Roosevelt has made, to his associates on the Civil-Service Commission, of his inquiry into the conduct of the officials of the New York Custom-house in regard to political contributions during the last Presidential campaign, is a very interesting document. He found that in the

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Naval Office, under Col. Burt, the law prohibiting political assessments "was observed absolutely, both in letter and in spirit"; that, so far as he could find out, "there were no collections made for political purposes in any shape or form, and nothing like political coercion was tolerated; each employee was left entirely free to contribute to whichever political party he desired, or not to contribute at all if he did not wish to. In other words, the subordinates were treated as American citizens ought to be; they were required to do their full duty to the Government, and, this done, were left free to exercise their own judgment in political matters." In the Collector's office, under Mr. Magone, there were indirect and apparently general efforts made to evade the law, but not always successfully. There was no coercion, and no evidence that the Collector had knowledge of what was going on. In the Surveyor's office, under Mr. Beattie, contributions were universally levied, and with coercion upon Republican clerks, if not with the knowledge of Mr. Beattie, at least without interference on his part. "Such widespread and far-reaching evasion and violation of the law," concludes Mr. Roosevelt, "speaks but ill for the vigilance of those whose duty it was to see it enforced. The contrast in this respect between the Surveyor's office under Mr. Beattie and the Naval Office under Mr. Burt reflects credit on the latter and does not reflect credit on the former." Yet President Harrison, solemnly pledged not only to uphold the Civil-Service Law, but to regard "only the interests of the public service" in making removals, removed Col. Burt without even ordinary courtesy, though he had spent a lifetime in the public service, and he gave his place to a politician as a reward for political activity.

The absurdity of Senator Blair's plea for Federal aid to education in the South on the ground that the South expends only $1 per capita upon schools to $3 at the North, is shown by the fact that Vermont does not expend one-third as much for each child of school age as Massachusetts, because of the differences in the cost of systems between a State with but two places having over 10,000 inhabitants and a State where the greater part of the people live in cities and large towns. It only remains to show, as the report of the Commissioner of Education just issued enables us to do, that there are Southern States which already expend as much proportionately as the Northern States with which they should be compared. Mr. Blair's own State of New Hampshire had 346,991 people by the last census, and Florida 269,493. New Hampshire's school expenditure in 1888 was $686,491. A corresponding ratio for Florida would have been about $525,000, and the actual expenditure was $484,110, the difference being more than accounted for by the fact that New Hampshire has three times as many cities and large towns as Florida. Maine has 648,936 people, and West Virginia 618,457. Maine's expenditure was $1,238,898, and West Virginia's $1,234,578, a slightly larger ratio for the Southern State. Vermont has 332,286 inhabitants and Texas 1,591,749, or a little more than four and a half times as many. Vermont's expenditure was $650,392, and that of Texas $2,778,172; or nearly four and a half times as much. In other words, a number of the Southern States already expend as much proportionately upon schools as do Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont, and the rest of them are rapidly attaining the same level. One might as well, therefore, talk of Federal aid to New England as to the South.

Mr. Saxton has consented to three amendments of his ballot bill, all of which are in the nature of concessions to Democratic demands. The first provides for grouping the names of all candidates by parties, rather than by offices, the names of each party's nominees to be placed in a separate column, with the party title at the head. By the side of these parallel columns there is to be left a blank column in which any voter may write or paste the names of candidates for whom he wishes to vote. The second amendment provides that the voter shall erase the names of all candidates upon the ballot save those for whom he wishes to vote. For some inscrutable reason there are Democrats who think this method more "constitutional" than that of marking with an X the names of the voter's choice. It seems to us much more likely to cause delay and confusion, for, in the hands of an illiterate voter, the erasure of a lot of names in several closely printed columns is a far more difficult task than the simple marking of a portion of the names with a cross. The third amendment provides for the issuing of a blank ballot, one column wide, in cases where no nominations have been made, upon which voters may write or paste such names as they choose.

The first of these amendments is the one which will excite most discussion, and it will call forth some adverse comments from the friends and advocates of the reform. Under the Australian system the names of the candidates are placed in alphabetical order, under each office, and this method is followed in the English and Canadian systems and in the new laws of Massachusetts, Montana, Minnesota, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, Tennessee, and Kentucky, the politics of each candidate being indicated after his name. Under the Belgian system, which was an outgrowth of the Australian system, and was adopted in 1877, after the latter had been tried with such complete success in England, the names of candidates are grouped by parties, and this method is prescribed in the Indiana and Missouri laws. The objection to it is that it is in the interest of strict party voting, thus acting as a check upon complete independence of action by the voter in marking his ballot. There is undoubtedly force in this objection.

There is a curious outbreak of zeal in both houses of the Legislature in favor of appointing women as deputy factory inspectors. Four bills upon the subject have already appeared, two in the Senate and two in the Assembly. The most elaborate and in many respects the most objectionable of the series is fathered by Senator Fassett. This bill furnishes a striking illustration of cumulative folly in legislation. In 1886 a law was passed to regulate the employment of women and children in manufacturing establishments; and to execute the provisions of this law the Governor was authorized to appoint a Factory Inspector, at a salary of $2,000 a year. This Inspector was to be allowed one assistant at a salary of $1,500 a year, and these two were to be the sole executors of the law, and were allowed only $2,500 a year for expenses. In 1887 an amendment was added giving the Factory Inspector power to appoint eight deputy inspectors, at a salary of $1,000 each. Last year a bill supported by Senator Fassett was passed authorizing the appointment of six deputy female inspectors, but for some reason the power to appoint them was conferred upon the Governor instead of upon the Factory Inspector. When the bill reached the Governor, it was discovered to be defective, either because of a clerical error or otherwise, for while it gave the Governor the power to appoint, it left the power of removal with the Inspector. The Governor, therefore, vetoed it.

Senator Fassett's present bill provides for the appointment by the Governor of eight deputy female inspectors, at a salary of $1,000 a year, and gives him the power of removal also on charges preferred by the Inspector. Why the power of appointment and removal should be changed from the Inspector to the Governor is the most inexplicable feature of this bill. The same section which gives this power to the Governor in reference to the women deputies leaves it with the Inspector in reference to the men deputies. What reason is there for giving it to the Governor in either case? The Inspector is the superior officer of the deputies and must be held to account for their conduct. If he cannot be trusted to make suitable appointments, he should be removed from the office, but so long as he is allowed to remain, there can be no excuse for taking such a power as this from him. Another objectionable feature of Mr. Fassett's bill is the extension of the scope of the law to "mercantile establishments," giving the Inspector and his deputies jurisdiction over "any place where goods, wares, and merchandise are offered for sale and wherever five or more persons are employed." The possibilities for pernicious meddling and "strikes" thus opened would be boundless and intolerable. There would be a call for even a larger number of deputies than is now demanded in a bill which Mr. Brown has introduced in the Senate and Mr. Duffy in the Assembly, which provides for twenty-eight deputies, ten of whom shall be women, and all at a salary of $1,000 a year. This is simply a proposal to add $20,000 to the salary list of the Inspector's force. Nothing like such an increase is needed.

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The editor of the *Times* pronounces the Fair Bill constitutional. "We have not the least doubt," he says, "that the proposed measure is entirely constitutional, and really in no need of defence on that ground, and that it would be so held by any judicial tribunal." Now, this would be entirely satisfactory if it were not that his decisions have been frequently reversed by the courts of this State. It is true he has also frequently reversed theirs, but they have control of the Sheriff and the militia, and can, therefore, get their judgments executed, which he cannot. Hence the public is quite justified in remaining in a state of suspense about the matter. Indeed, he admits that the case is "something exceptional," so that his previous rulings will not cover it. We, therefore, take the liberty of submitting to him this view, for which we ask his patient consideration: If there were no doubt about the constitutionality of municipal assistance to an international fair, the city could sell bonds and give the proceeds in cash to the Commission to spend as might be necessary, could it not? It is because there is doubt, that the expedient of buying lands for park purposes and then giving the use of the land to the Fair, has been resorted to. But everybody knows that the city does not need any additions to its parks. It has more parks now than it can lay out and keep in order. Therefore the purchase of park lands is an undisguised pretence or subterfuge. What the courts will be asked to decide is, whether the Constitutional restrictions can be got rid of by pretence or subterfuge, because if they can they are worthless, and need further amendment. Many good lawyers think they cannot, and the question will be tested shortly. It will require great courage in any judge to do his duty in the matter, especially if he should be asked for an injunction, for he will certainly be bombarded with abuse, and denounced as that vile thing, "an enemy of the Fair"; besides being a Judas and a Benedict Arnold.

A meeting of the Woman's Educational and Industrial Union of Buffalo was held a few days ago to promote the passage by the Legislature of a bill requiring the employment of at least one educated woman physician in each State institution for the insane, where insane women are received for treatment. The State has given legal sanction to the practice of medicine by women, and public opinion fully approves this policy. The question here presented is not whether women are entitled to employment in the State hospitals, but whether women patients are entitled to treatment at the hands of their own sex, under the supervision which the law establishes for the care of the institutions. We do not see how two opinions can be held on this subject, and it appears that in nine States where the experiment has been made the opinion is pretty nearly unanimous that the woman physicians should be employed in such institutions. A woman physician has been employed in the Willard Asylum in this State during the past five years, at the instance of the Superintendent, who writes in terms of high approval of the practice. A woman physician has been in charge of the female department of the Norristown, Pa., Hospital for the Insane during ten years, having one thousand women under her care. We can hardly doubt that the bill will be favorably considered by the Legislature. After it shall have gone into effect, the public will wonder why any different system ever prevailed.

The Samoan treaty was published several days ago, and has attracted considerable attention in Germany and England, but scarcely any in this country. The reason is, that Germany and England have more interests in Samoa than we have, although theirs are not great, because the islands themselves are of trifling importance except as stations or stopping-places in the South Pacific. We have little need of stopping-places there because we have scarcely any shipping. This is proved by the fact that, although we have had the right to establish a coaling-station there for fifteen years, we never thought of availing ourselves of it until we got into a row with Germany there. What the row was about not more than half-a-dozen people can now tell. Not even the bumptious editors who fought so valiantly for our rights last year can tell without referring to their files, and if they were to do that, nobody would read the stuff now. The influenza microbe can "give points" to Samoa as a matter of popular interest in this country, if not in Germany as well. Very likely Bismarck is as glad to "get out" as we are. The cable reports that public opinion in Berlin considers the treaty a "German retreat." We hope that this phrase does not imply an American advance.

The New York *Times's* London correspondent is determined to have the Bank of England issue £1 notes payable in silver, whether it is authorized by Parliament to do so or not. His reason is, not that he has any particular views on the subject of bimetallism, or on the convenience of small notes for purposes of retail trade, but because he was the first one to make the announcement. As a good journalist he is bound to see the thing through. Although everybody else is waiting for Parliament to amend the bank charter, he is for acting at once. There is nothing like consistency. If you have said that the moon is made of green cheese, always stick to it. That England will issue £1 notes before long is highly probable. That they should be silver notes of full legal tender is next to impossible. The recent advance in the price of silver in London is due solely to an increased demand for remittances to India.

The famous Danish Minister, M. Estrup, has dissolved the Folkething, or Chamber, a month before the legal limit in order to be able to discuss the budget with a new Legislature, before the beginning of the financial year, April 1. M. Estrup occupies a position such as no minister in a parliamentary country has ever occupied before. He has for fifteen years held his place against a majority in five successive Chambers, each of which has refused to vote his budget, but he has gone on and collected the taxes and spent them just the same, having the King and the army at his back. This extraordinary state of things is due to the fact that the voters always send up large Radical majorities, while the Court is rigidly Conservative, and insists on keeping a Conservative Ministry in power, and relies on the popular attachment to the royal family to prevent any open resistance to the unconstitutional régime. The majority would, it is well known, make short work of the army and navy, and many of the more expensive offices of State, and probably cut down the civil list of the Crown. That M. Estrup expects the new Chamber to be much more tractable than the present one, is hardly probable, but, like most men in trouble, he thinks any change may be in some degree for the better.

The Spanish Ministerial crisis appears to have been partly manipulated and partly natural. Sagasta is the shrewdest politician that Spain has known in many a day. He was nothing loath to secure a reorganization of his Cabinet, and the easiest way to bring this about was to have all the Ministers resign and give him a clean slate. There can be no doubt, either, that he was sincerely desirous of placating the powerful dissident factions of his own party by giving them representation in the Cabinet, and that their obstinate insistence on their own terms was a real disappointment to him. Then came the pretence of withdrawing his own personality, and the attempt of Señor Martinez, President of the Chamber of Deputies, a very respectable and inoffensive Liberal, to form a Ministry. This was predestined to failure, and was probably meant only as a sort of object-lesson to the recalcitrant Liberals, to show them that if Sagasta could not lead, no one could. All this, with the subsequent prompt success in forming a Cabinet as soon as this formality was out of the way, and the Queen had asked Sagasta again to try his hand at it, betrays the deftness of the political manager. But there are also fixed elements in the situation which play their part in these changes, and which foretoken the speedy failure of the new Cabinet. The Liberal majority cannot be counted upon for the most important measures to come before the Cortes—the budget and the bill for universal suffrage. These Government projects will probably not be killed outright so much as indefinitely postponed. Yet Cánovas and the Conservatives can do nothing with the present Chamber, and, as Sagasta cannot manage it, everything points to a vote of temporary credit, the dissolution of the Cortes, and a new election, which will be contested on the main issues now before the country, and which will yield a positive and working majority on one side or the other.

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M'KINLEY'S BRUTAL BILL.

FROM the beginning of our Federal Government under the Constitution down to the repeal, in 1874, of the customs moiety laws and the extermination of custom-house spies and informers, an intentional undervaluation in even one line or one item of an invoice—though the fraud infected not more than five dollars' worth of merchandise—involved a confiscation of the *whole* invoice, even if of $1,000 or $50,000 in value, provided the payment of tax-money required by law was thereby evaded. The law of 1874, pushed forward by Bayard and Casserly, declared the forfeiture should only cover the articles tainted by the fraud. The old law of 1863 denounced, be it remembered, an undervaluation proved to have been "knowingly" made. But the proposed Treasury-McKinley bill to "*simplify*" the collection of taxes on imported merchandise declares, in its seventh section, that on consigned goods (never sold or bought, and therefore having no value fixed by selling and buying) the person making entry shall not, on his entry paper, add to the invoice value in order to make dutiable value. Why not? The importer of *purchased* goods can make such addition if he has reason to suspect that the Appraiser will report a dutiable value greater than the invoice value. Is it to stop consignments to our ports by foreign manufacturers? Why endeavor to do that?

The McKinley bill then declares that, if the appraised value (which is the dutiable value) shall exceed the invoice value more than 20 per cent.—that is, if the consignor and appraiser differ by that percentage—"such entry may be held to be presumptively fraudulent, and the Collector may seize such merchandise" (a legislative hint to seize), and, on trial in court, the forfeiture *shall* be adjudged unless the claimant "shall rebut such presumption by sufficient evidence." Bear in mind that the 20 per cent. difference is not only to be taken as presumptive evidence that the maker of the invoice told a falsehood therein, but that the falsehood was uttered knowingly, intentionally, and with a guilty purpose to cheat the Government.

But that is not all: the forfeiture is, by Mr. McKinley, made to cover the *whole* of the merchandise in the package in which is the infected article. Worse even than all that: the importer cannot enter his merchandise, valued (we will assume) at $10,000, without paying, let us say, 60 per cent. tax, or $6,000. If appraised at 20 per cent. more than $10,000, he must then pay as regular tax $7,200, together with a penalty of $2,400, making $9,600 as tax, and then lose *all* his merchandise besides. The customs tax becomes, on entry of the merchandise, a personal debt to the United States, which the importer can be made to pay by suit, whether or not his merchandise is confiscated. The regular tax, the penalty tax, and the confiscation are each made cumulative by this McKinley plan to collect protective taxes.

Even more monstrous is the ninth section of this McKinley bill, which declares that if anybody shall make, or attempt, an entry by a *false* paper, or a *false* statement, or any *false* practice, then all that is in the package, or its value, *shall* be confiscated. The court has no discretion. It is not even clear, from the Treasury-McKinley language, that an attempted evasion of a tax need be proved by the Government. Certainly no proof of actual *intention* to defraud is necessary. It will be enough if the paper, or statement, or practice be merely false in *law*. The real although concealed purpose seems to be a sly repeal of an important part of the sixteenth section of the law of June 22, 1874, which compels the court to require the jury to find whether or not the falsehood alleged was "with an *actual intention* to defraud the United States." That section was enacted to put a stop to confiscations on what lawyers call "presumptive knowledge" by an importer that he did something false. Mr. McKinley endeavors to condemn an importer to State prison, with a forfeiture of his property, if he declares a falsehood in his invoice, or at a custom-house; and Mr. McKinley's language implies that an executive decision or opinion that a falsehood has been declared, is, by the device of presumptions, to control the judicial power. He uses the phrase "presumptively fraudulent." He applies it to an invoice value less by 20 per cent. than an appraiser's valuation.

Fraud should contain, as we think, three ingredients, which are deceit, actual intention to deceive, and an injury by that deceit. It should exclude mere ignorance and negligence and an honest difference of opinion. But Mr. McKinley condemns the maker of an invoice as guilty of a "presumptive" fraud on the customs revenue if the value declared in the invoice is less, by more than 20 per cent., than the value which an appraiser says is dutiable value. It would be much the same if he were to introduce a bill to eliminate intention to defraud from a definition of the alleged Silcott forgeries, and the crime on which Silcott's extradition is to be asked. What he really endeavors by his bill to punish by imprisonment and confiscation is an insertion in an invoice of a value less by 20 per cent. than another and a different value, which is dutiable value, or appraised value, even although the invoice was made abroad in perfect good faith. The motive is to deter a foreign manufacturer from sending to this country, on consignment, things which people wish to buy. Mr. McKinley carries his deterrent legislation, in the interest of "protection," so far that he puts importers of such consigned goods outside of the pale of humanity.

MORE MUTINY AMONG THE PROTECTIONISTS.

IT must be with feelings of profound gloom, if not of complete despair, that sincere protectionists contemplate the growing movement among Republicans for free raw materials. The proper way to deal with the malcontent element of course would be to read it out of the party, but, as this would unfortunately result in driving the party from power, it cannot be safely followed. In fact, it has become necessary to resort to the humiliating step of imploring those who are experiencing an eclipse of faith to adhere to the old standards, for fear that the "American system," the product of so much careful calculation and the theme of so much eloquence, may suffer an entire collapse. Yet even here the difficulties seem almost insuperable, for the disaffected are disposed to maintain that they must have free raw materials or be ruined, and to insist that their ruin is not in accordance with the true theory of protectionism.

A striking instance of this alarming tendency is afforded by the utterances of Mr. P. L. Moen of the Washburn & Moen Company of Worcester. He declares his unalterable devotion to the "idea of protection," but protests that that idea is to protect the whole body of American workingmen, and "not to protect manufacturers in one section of the country from the competition of those in other sections." He asserts that the makers of Bessemer steel in the West obtain their ores near at hand, and thus have a permanent protection in the freights which Eastern makers have to pay both upon their ores and their products. The addition of duties upon foreign ores constitutes, therefore, an unjust discrimination against the East, which can be remedied only by allowing that section to import raw materials free of duty.

However plausible Mr. Moen's argument may seem, it is obvious upon a little reflection that it involves a principle inconsistent with genuine protectionism. He is especially interested in ore as his raw material, but his principle applies to all materials that are used in any manufacturing process. The cotton-manufacturers of New England can claim with equal force that they must have coal and machinery duty free, or there is an unjust discrimination in favor of Pennsylvania and the South. The foundrymen make the same claim as to pig-iron, and the shoemakers make like claims as to linen thread. The builders will require free lumber and cement, the brass-manufacturers free copper, the carpet-makers free wool, and even the poor needlewomen may feebly cry for free thread and free needles.

Mr. Moen's claim is hostile also to another of the fundamental tenets of protectionism, the "home-market" doctrine. If he and other manufacturers in like circumstances are allowed to send vast sums of money out of the country on the pretence of obtaining free raw materials, it is obvious that this money supports foreign producers and laborers instead of our own, and is therefore expended to the disadvantage of American industries. How can Mr. Moen profess to be desirous of protecting American workingmen while he is guilty of such practices as these? If he is getting his ore from abroad while there remains an American mine unworked or an American miner unemployed, he is a traitor to his cause and to his country. If such is the case, it is a conclusive proof that the duty upon foreign ore does not afford sufficient protection to our industries. Rather than yield to his demand, it were better to devas-

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tate a strip of country a hundred miles wide along our coast, and thus interpose an effective barrier against the flood of foreign ores, the products of pauper labor, with which our miners have at present to compete.

The truth is, Mr. Moen's professions of devotion to the idea of protection have a hollow ring. There is nothing of the "sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish" spirit about such devotion as he exhibits. He seems to have been ardent in the cause so long as his profits were large, and to be growing cool now that our beneficent policy has raised up American competitors who are cutting them down. He fixes his attention upon that dogma of his creed which declares that protective duties raise the price of the products of American labor, and ignores that other dogma, equally important—although to the uninitiated apparently inconsistent—which maintains that the same duties lower the price of the same products. He has enjoyed the rich blessings of the first dogma, and now turns against his faith when the bitterness of the second becomes perceptible. Such conduct is not heroic, and if there is any truth in the American theory of the development of our industries, it should be worth suffering for. If Mr. Moen and those whom he represents do not feel disposed to sacrifice themselves in this sacred cause, they might as well give up trying to humbug themselves and the people by their talk about protecting American workingmen, and confess that the less our industries have to do with the Government at Washington the better for every one.

THE NEW EXTRADITION TREATY.

If the *Tribune* text of the recently negotiated extradition treaty between the United States and Great Britain is accurate, the result is not what many experts in the jurisprudence of extradition had hoped for. It is only a patching of the single section in the Webster-Ashburton Treaty of 1842 which has stipulations for extradition. During the intervening half-century, the use of electricity in sending messages under the sea, and the celerity of the movements of criminals, have made the old methods of arrest quite insufficient. The new treaty has no new provisions adequate for these new conditions. There is a great and useful enlargement of extraditable offences, and at the end of them is this stipulation: "Extradition is also to take place for *participation* in any of the crimes mentioned in this convention, or in the aforesaid tenth article; provided such *participation* be punishable by the laws of both countries."

Is "participation" intended to include all accessories either before or after the commission of the offence? Will it embrace one who suggests a crime and persuades another to commit it? Can one be extradited who helps the criminal to escape, or knowingly uses the proceeds of the crime? Does the treaty include those described by modern law as principals in the second degree? Can an accessory be extradited before the principal has been convicted?

The second article stipulates that "A fugitive criminal shall not be surrendered if the offence in respect of which his surrender is demanded be one of a political character"; and that "if any question shall arise as to whether any case comes within the provisions of this article, the decision of the authorities of the Government in whose jurisdiction the fugitive shall be at the time shall be final"; but there is no definition or description of "political character," nor of the "authorities," executive or judicial, which shall decide.

The third article has a provision which, if Silcott were extradited for forgery, will forbid trying him for a lesser offence if forgery cannot be proved. England has shown her willingness to abandon that contention, as may be seen from the most authoritative opinion on the subject, if the character of the men be considered, ever uttered in England, including among them Cockburn, Selborne, Blackburn, Russell Gurney, Baggally, Brett, Thesiger, John Rose, Stephen, and Harcourt.

The fourth article declares:

"All articles seized, which were in the possession of the person surrendered at the time of his apprehension, whether being the proceeds of the crime or offence charged, or being material as evidence in making proof of the crime or offence charged, shall, so far as practicable, and if the competent authority of the State applied to for the extradition has ordered the delivery thereof, be given up when the extradition takes place. Nevertheless, the rights of third parties with regard to the articles aforesaid shall be duly respected."

But there is no stipulation in regard to arrest on a telegraphic request, or for searching the premises of the accused, or a place to which he may be believed to have transferred stolen property, or evidence of his crime, as is usual in ordinary cases in this country and in England.

The tenth section of the treaty of 1842 covers persons "*charged*" with the crimes mentioned therein, and all the crimes mentioned in the first article of the present treaty need only be charged. What need, therefore, is there of this seventh article of the new convention?

"The provisions of the said tenth article, and of this convention, shall apply to persons convicted of the crimes therein respectively named and specified, whose sentence therefor shall not have been executed.

"In case of a fugitive criminal alleged to have been convicted of the crime for which his surrender is asked, a copy of the record of the conviction and of the sentence of the court before which such conviction took place, duly authenticated, shall be produced, together with the evidence proving that the prisoner is the person to whom the sentence refers."

During the half century of the old treaty of 1842 there have been many serious questions raised under it not yet put to rest, but with these the new convention fails to deal.

Nearly all foreign Governments have, it is believed, including Great Britain, heretofore expressed the wish that the surrendering Government should have a motive for reducing the expenses of arrest, examination, detention, and final surrender, by paying those expenses itself. The expenses are so enormous in our country that France and Germany say they cannot afford to make the application for extradition. But Mr. Blaine expresses to the Senate this quite unique reason for upholding the present practice: "The formalities attending extradition proceedings, and the fact that the demanding Government is required to pay the expenses, are better guarantees against demands based upon trivial causes than an insignificant pecuniary limitation." That is equivalent to saying: "We will insert in the treaty as many trivial crimes as you may desire to have inserted, but we will make the expenses of extradition so great that you will never demand from us the offender."

THE PRESBYTERIAN REVISION.

The discussion now going on in the New York Presbytery, as well as in the Presbyteries of other places, over the proposal to revise the Westminster Confession of Faith, is extremely interesting even to those who do not belong to the denomination, because it distinctly marks a change of a very startling character in the nature and objects of church creeds. A creed is what a certain number of people believe to be true in religion, politics, or science. But until now the creeds of certain religious denominations—the Roman Catholic Church for one, and the Calvinists or Presbyterian Church for another—have not only contained what the members of those bodies respectively accepted as true, but what, as they held, all other men were also bound to accept as true, on pain of eternal damnation. Both the Catholic Church and the Calvinistic churches have been, as everybody knows, very firm in insisting that the deliberate and persistent rejection of certain statements presented by them in the form of articles of faith, by any person whatsoever, learned or ignorant, would be followed at least by exclusion from heaven after death, or, in other words, that a man's salvation depended on his opinions concerning his relations to the Creator.

The Westminster Confession even goes further than this. It declares that a certain number ("some") of "angels and men" are, without reference to their opinions, and merely for "the manifestation of God's glory," "foreordained to everlasting death" (chap. iii.). It also declares that "others not elected, even though they be called by the ministry of the Word and have some common operations of the Spirit, cannot truly come to Christ," and "cannot be saved." Much less can they be saved who do not "profess the Christian religion, be they never so diligent to frame their lives according to the light of nature and the law of that religion they profess; and to assert and maintain that they may is very pernicious and to be detested" (chapter x.). Chapter xxv. says that outside "the visible Church"—that is, outside the number of those that profess the true religion—"there is no ordinary possibility of salvation."

Now, all these affirmations, and a great many others of the same sort, were, when they were made and embodied in the Confession, intended to be affirmations of facts of the universe, and were accepted as such by members of the Presbyterian Church.

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They were not presented as things which anybody might believe or reject at his option, or as "pious opinions" simply, or even as strong probabilities. They were produced as part and parcel of Divine order, which a man could no more safely disregard than he could safely disregard the law of gravitation or the succession of day and night.

It is now proposed to change this creed in various particulars. The reports of the discussion made in the newspapers are meagre, and we therefore do not venture to rely on them for details. But we believe it is correct to say that, in the arguments for revision, the Confession is not treated as the early Church treated it—as a list of Divine truths which could not be rejected without peril—but simply as a list of things which certain persons believed in the seventeenth century, but which nobody in the nineteenth century is bound to believe unless he pleases. For instance, the Committee appointed to report on the revision recommend that the third chapter be so altered that nothing shall be said about the predestination of some men to everlasting death; that the fate of non-elect infants shall be passed over in silence, or else that they shall be made participants in the salvation allowed to elect infants, and that provision be made for the salvation of such heathens as may show themselves worthy of it by their walk and conversation—a class which the Confession expressly proscribes, and for whom, in fact, it forbids a word to be said.

On the old theory of the nature and objects of a creed, these changes could only be justified by showing that they were made in consequence of some fresh revelation, through recognized theological channels, touching the methods of Divine government; that is, in the Presbyterian view, through some important addition, previously unknown, to the one source of religious truth —the Scriptures—or some new and indisputable interpretation of the existing canon. But nothing of this sort is alleged. What is said is, that these changes must be made because the original doctrines enunciated in the Confession are "unpreachable," meaning either that the ministers no longer believe them, or that the congregations will no longer listen to them. In the nineteenth century, it is maintained, people will not believe, no matter who says it, that non-elect infants are damned, or that good heathens or sceptics have no chance of salvation, no matter how pure their lives or how earnestly they may strive for the light; that these things were all very well for the seventeenth century, but that in our day such doctrines are too repulsive for popular acceptance.

This, it will be seen at a glance, reduces a church creed very much to the plane of a political platform. Truth is none the less truth because it is unpalatable or unpleasant. The facts of theology are, or ought to be, just as imperious as the facts of natural science. Unwillingness to believe a thing because it would, if true, be inconvenient or disagreeable, or shock a prejudice, is, in all other domains of human thought or activity, accepted as evidence of unfitness for any serious process of ratiocination, or even for the orderly conduct of life. The utilitarian argument, or "police argument," as some have called it, for the truth of Christianity—the good it has done to the world, and the damage its extinction would cause to human society—has always been open to this very grave objection. If there be anything we learn with certainty touching the government of the universe through experience of the course of nature, it is that law takes no account of human likes or dislikes.

Consequently, a creed which simply professes to express popular opinion upon certain topics at certain periods, and which is, therefore, open to change at greater or less intervals to suit the changes in popular taste or feeling, may be a useful kind of creed, but it is not the kind of creed on which the great religions of the world were founded and to which the leading churches owe their existence. Tocqueville, in one of his letters to a friend who had written to him of the "progressive Catholicism" of which there was as much talk in 1854 as now, said, "I share your feelings about the impertinence of progressive Catholicism. It is detestable, aside from the question of faith. A religion is absolutely true or absolutely false. How can it make progress? As you very justly remark, the progress must be in the application and not in the doctrine." This is just as true of other churches as of the Roman Catholic Church. As soon as you make them "progressive," and decide what they are to believe by a majority vote, you assimilate the Church to a political party, and convert its creed into a platform of the political kind. For which reason it seems as if it would be vastly more respectful to the great historic faiths not to examine them in our time too curiously, or try to ascertain exactly how much life each article has left in it. The best thing to be done with "a creed outworn" is to let it alone. The more it is debated, the more it crumbles.

THE PORTUGUESE CASE.

THE excitement of the Portuguese over the snub they have received from Great Britain is so childish in its manifestations that its causes or consequences seem hardly worth examination. The returning of British medals, the boycotting of British goods, and the throwing of stones at the British Embassy are not the expressions of really important rage, and must soon cease. They are made doubly absurd by the fact that they are called forth by the loss of a million square miles of territory, when they are only suited to the loss of a game of cards or unhandsome treatment at a dinner-party. But the affair is, after all, an episode in a history which is now bidding fair to become interesting—that of the African Continent—and it is therefore worth while to see what Portugal's case is as set forth by M. Barros Gomes in his despatch of the 29th of November, 1889.

Lord Salisbury laid down the rule, to begin with, that "an effective occupation was an essential condition of sovereignty." M. Gomes on this point makes his strongest fight. He says that this rule has no place in international law with regard to the interior of Africa, and was limited by the Berlin Conference to the coast regions; and that the phrase "sphere of influence," now so freely used by all the European foreign offices, is of itself the best proof "that effective occupation (if by that we understand the permanent establishment of authority), cannot constitute the essential condition of possession on the part of other nations."

The "sphere of influence" is undoubtedly a vague and therefore somewhat weak phrase; but its meaning is well known. It means the sphere within which a Power competent to carry out its threats and fulfil its promises, has given the inhabitants to understand that they may, in case of need, rely on it for protection. Promises of this sort made by Germany or Great Britain are for all practical purposes as good as forts and garrisons. Made by a Power like Portugal, they are not worth the paper on which they are written. When Lord Salisbury refused to acknowledge possession without occupation, he meant undoubtedly nominal occupation which could be made real at any time, if necessary, against an adverse claimant. Portugal has no such nominal occupation anywhere, and least of all in Mashonaland.

The rest of M. Gomes's argument is historical, but certainly not diplomatic, and reads like a lecture before a Geographical Society. He says, as regards the territory north of the Zambesi, that Portugal discovered the Nyassa Lake in 1624; that the region between the lake and the Zambesi was explored by Portuguese in the last century and in this; that Montague Kerr, in his book 'The Far Interior,' records the discovery of proof of Portuguese influence in this region in the use of the word "Ami" by an elephant-hunter named Eustaquio da Costa; that Livingstone also discovered it in the information he got from the Portuguese authorities on the coast touching the river Shiré and the Nyassa; that Mr. A. F. S. Arnot also came on traces of it, and that it led to the submission in 1887 and 1888 of numerous "little kings" to Portuguese authority, and the establishment of a Portuguese mission at M'ponda, on the south shore of the lake.

Touching the Mashonaland, he says it was originally acquired by purchase in 1620 from the old empire of Monomotapa; that there are ruins of ancient fortresses in this region the Portuguese origin of which is acknowledged by M. Lochner in an article in the *Bechuana News*, and by the reports of two Portuguese officers now travelling there; that the construction of these forts is recommended in reports now in the Archives at Lisbon, dated about 1610; that their construction was followed up by settlements in 1633 and 1677, and by the despatch of numerous eminent missionaries, who have left traces over the whole confines of Monomotapa. Finally he declares that, in spite of her domestic troubles since the beginning of this century, Portugal has never ceased to claim this terri-

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tory "by constant and uninterrupted manifestations."

Of her ability now to occupy, settle, fortify, defend, open it, or civilize it, M. Gomes does not say one word. This is not surprising in view of the fact that the emigration from Portugal numbers about 15,000 a year, who nearly all go to America; that the revenue amounts to about $38,000,000, and that there has been a deficit every year for the last thirty years; that the population is less than 5,000,000, and increases at the rate of about one per cent. per annum. Moreover, England has been for a century her best friend and protector. She drove the French out of Portugal in the beginning of the century, has since defended her against all the world and supplied her with her best markets. Portugal exports to the value of (in round numbers) $28,000,000, and of this Great Britain took, in 1887, almost exactly one-half, or $14,180,000. The quarrel is, in truth, almost as ridiculous from the sentimental as from the practical point of view.

THE PRISONS OF THE CIVIL WAR.

In the summer of 1888, the late Jefferson Davis wrote for the *North American Review* a paper that has just been published by *Belford's Magazine*, under the title, "Andersonville and Other War-Prisons." A part of it compares the mortality and, by inference, the sufferings of the prisoners at the North with those of prisoners held at the South; and the figures used show that 50,000 more United States than Confederate troops were captives, with 4,000 fewer deaths. Mr. Davis accounts for this smaller mortality by the Confederate "care for the defenceless." He says that "this, in the depth of our destitution, never ceased," and that "it was not starvation, but acclimation, unsuitable diet, and despondency which were the potent agents of disease and death." This revival of the most ghastly phase of the war compels notice, notwithstanding the decease of the conspicuous author.

According to Fox, 24,866 national soldiers died of disease in Southern prisons, in addition to 5,290 who died of wounds and other causes in the hands of the enemy, or a total of 30,156. But the same excellent authority asserts that, owing to imperfect records, all the deaths are not included in those figures, and, as shown by the graves, the Union mortality has been estimated at 36,401. That would give, in round numbers, 30,000 deaths from disease. Fox also says, "30,152 Confederates died in Northern prisons," not including mortality from wounds in field hospitals nor deaths at Johnson's Island and some other places of confinement. The published official records substantially agree with this, and also account for 30,716 deaths among Confederate prisoners, of which 5,569 followed violence and 1,556 were from causes not noted, leaving 23,591 due to specified disease. It appears, therefore, that the mortality from wounds was practically the same for both sides, and that the actual deaths from disease were slightly in excess at the South. We have no available data by which to confirm or correct Mr. Davis's census of the total captives. But in this discussion the actual mortality is not so important as are its causes. We have not the space to traverse in detail the indictment of want of "care of the defenceless," the implication of needless cruelty at the North, but the following facts are worth rehearsal:

At Johnson's Island, in Lake Erie, which was a hygienic model prison, where chiefly officers were confined (whose condition when captured was presumably better than that of the rank and file), the annual mortality rate was 35.4 per thousand of mean strength, the fatality 4.4 per cent. of the cases treated, and the deaths 9.8 annually for every thousand commitments—it being remembered that the mean strength and the commitments are very different factors. The other extreme was reached at Elmira, N. Y., where the percentage of fatal cases to those treated was 28.8, and the annual death-rate per 1,000 men committed was 241, or 444 per 1,000 of mean strength. At the nine principal depots the percentage of fatal cases was 7.7, the annual death-rate per 1,000 admitted was 65.7, or 230.4 per mean strength, while in the Confederate ranks the death-rate from disease was 167.3, or three-fourths of this.

Mr. Davis assumes that as, generally speaking, all the prisoners were on duty when captured, therefore they were in substantially equal condition to be benefited by rest and proper treatment; and that, owing to the admitted greater salubrity of the North, and its superior facilities for caring for both the well and the infirm, there should have been a lower mortality there than at the South. The chief fallacy lies in the assumption that because men were in the ranks they were free from disease-tendencies. *This is a conspicuously false premise.* The diseases most fatal to the Confederate prisoners were the same diseases that were most fatal to their armed ranks: the diseases from which the Union troops died in captivity were entirely different from those that affected them in the field. In other words, the depraved physical condition and tendency to disease of the Southern men were intensified and aggravated by the state of confinement; but the Northern soldiers were made ill and died from quite other causes—both of these statements being general.

Thus, according to the best available statistics, the annual rates per thousand of the cases of certain important classes of disease in the Confederate and Union armies, and among the Confederate and Union prisoners, under several conditions, were as follows (unfortunately, there are no trustworthy figures by which to compare the deaths from separate diseases with the mean strength of large bodies of Confederate troops):

COMPARATIVE RATES OF SICKNESS AND DEATHS FROM DISEASE FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE WAR TO INCLUDE 1862.

	Ratio of cases per 1,000 cases of all diseases.		Ratio of deaths per 1,000 deaths from all diseases.		Percentage of mortality to cases.	
	C. S. A.	U. S. A.	C. S. A.	U. S. A.	C. S. A.	U. S. A.
Diarrhœa and dysentery	277	107	283	176	1.48	1.25
Pulmonary diseases	51	115	255	134	18.89	2.34
Eruptive fevers	54	23	73	60	5.12	5.27
Continued fevers	45	30	391	337	33.27	22.28
Malarial fevers	141	160	43	76	1.15	.95
Rheumatism	36	52	...	3	...	.14
All other diseases	396	337	131	214	1.26	1.32

ANNUAL SICK-RATES PER 1,000 MEAN AGGREGATE STRENGTH.

	Parts of 1861-62-63. C. S. A.	1863, U. S. A.	
Diarrhœa and dysentery	987	543	The same ratio was preserved for other periods U. S. A., but consecutive C. S. A. statistics later than 1862 are not available.
Pneumonia	103	34	
Eruptive fevers	No record.	No record.	
Continued fevers	275	125	
Malarial fevers	796	460	
Scurvy	No record.	No record.	

AVERAGE ANNUAL RATES OF DEATH PER 1,000 OF STRENGTH.

	Northern prisons.	Andersonville.	Elmira.	C. S. A.	U. S. A. White.
All diseases	230.4	732.6	444.1	167.3	53.48
Diarrhœa and dysentery	73.0	465.6	211.5	No exact data.	15.62
Pneumonia	61.7	27.4	117.3		6.34
Eruptive fevers	40.5	8.2	58.9		4.50
Continued fevers	13.6	20.5	21.2		11.60
Malarial fevers	12.6	12.2	9.9		5.04
Scurvy	4.3	102.8	3.0		0.16

The Confederate mortality in prison was very great, but it was great under all circumstances.

At the first blush Elmira seems a rival of Andersonville, and it is upon such statistics, unanalyzed, that the specious pleas of Northern inhumanity and neglect rest. The annual mortality of Elmira was 444.1 per 1,000 of mean strength, and the percentage of fatal cases was 28.8, which is enormous, but no other Northern depot attained half those figures. But Andersonville gave 732.6 to the 1,000 annual mor-

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tality; 13,000 men died there in the fourteen months of its occupancy, and during six months of that time so many died out of an average strength of 19,453 as to imply the death of all in fifteen months. To those dying in confinement should be added the thousands who certainly perished soon after their release, so miserable was their state.

There seems small doubt that the condition of the Confederate prisoners on arriving at the North was the determining factor in their subsequent physical career. This is shown by contemporaneous official reports. Thus at Hart's Island less than one hundred of a large detachment reached there "as well men or even in fair health." At Fort Delaware in July, 1863, the mortality was almost exclusively from chronic diarrhœa, confined to prisoners from the extreme Southern States received from the army near Vicksburg, and already the subjects of the disease for long periods. Prisoners from Virginia, under the same hygienic influences, then remained well. At Elmira "the Fort Fisher prisoners arrived in cold weather, very much depressed, poorly clad, and great numbers were soon taken sick with pneumonia and diarrhœa, rapidly assuming a typhoid character." Smallpox repeatedly broke out in various prisons, owing to the unprotected state of the prisoners, by whom the disease was frequently introduced.

Elmira is believed to be the only Northern prison at which there was much conspicuous mortality from avoidable disease, and here, as at the other depots, the underlying cause was the enfeebled condition of the men on arrival. Of 1,394 deaths there from diarrhœa and dysentery, all but 18 were from chronic diarrhœa. The contrasted statistics show that, among every thousand cases of all diseases treated in the armies, there were from these two combined 107 in the Union and 277 in the Confederate, and the annual sick-rate per 1,000 mean aggregate strength was 543 and 987. The proportion of deaths from these diseases in the Confederate lines cannot be determined, but of the Union white troops they were 15.62 per 1,000 mean strength. At Elmira the maximum was reached with 211.5 deaths per 1,000 mean strength, while the average in all the Northern prisons was 73, opposed to which towers at Andersonville the death-rate of 465.6 per mean strength from these alone. From scurvy there died 0.16 (sixteen-hundredths of one man) per 1,000 mean strength in the Union ranks. There are no figures for the Confederates, but there are frequent references to the existence of scurvy among them, and the fact that fifty-eight cases (with no death) occurred at Johnson's Island, where most of the prisoners were officers, and where the diet was exceptionally abundant and varied, shows that, open or latent, it was a constant menace to their army. At Elmira there died from it 3 per 1,000 mean strength, and at all the Northern prisons 4.3 per 1,000, in all which it is fair to infer that the cause antedated capture. But at Andersonville, of the Unionists, almost exclusively well when made prisoners, 102.8 per 1,000 mean strength, or more than a tenth of those held in the stockade, were there destroyed in that way alone.

We do not care to revive the unspeakable horrors of Andersonville—horrors which only those who witnessed them or who have studied their details can begin to realize—but it is a lame and useless equivocation for any one to say that this misery arose from the fact that medicines were made contraband. Those people should not have been made ill. The want of quinine, of opium, of calomel had nothing whatever to do with the suffering that insufficient, improper, and uncooked food, contaminated water, and want of shelter caused the victims of the stockade. That blankets and tents were military supplies, and therefore cut off from the Confederacy, is no excuse for the exposure and crowding of these helpless wretches. Mr. Davis writes: "It was not starving but acclimation, unsuited diet, and despondency which were the potent agents of disease and death." The distinction between starvation and unsuited diet is without a difference. Lieut.-Col. Chandler, C. S. A., reported, August 5, 1864:

"The sanitary condition of the prisoners is as wretched as it can be, the principal cause of mortality being scurvy and chronic diarrhœa, the proportion of the former being disproportionately large among those brought from Belle Isle. Nothing seems to have been done, and but little if any effort made to arrest it by procuring proper food. . . . Raw rations have to be issued to a very large proportion, who are entirely unprovided with proper utensils, and furnished so limited a supply of fuel that they are compelled to dig with their hands in the filthy marsh, before mentioned for roots, etc."

Despondency might well settle upon men so tortured.

Andersonville, where at one time the 33,000 prisoners present had but 28 square feet per man—a space 7x4 for all the purposes of life—where 2,000 sick men lay in the pen besides those in the hospital proper, where "millions of flies swarmed over everything and covered the faces of the sleeping patients, and crawled down their open mouths, and deposited their maggots on the gangrenous wounds of the living, and in the mouths of the dead" (Jones, C. S. A.), was not alone "a stench in the nostrils" among the war prisons. Danville, with an aggregate of 4,332 cases in the hospital, had a mortality of 28.7, almost identical with that of Elmira, but with a presumably better class of patients to work with. At Salisbury, 3,400 out of 8,600 were infected with typhus, not typhoid, fever, distinctly a disease due to concentrated human emanations developed in confined and unventilated spaces. There was no typhus in the Northern prisons. In December, 1864, 20 per cent. of the deaths there occurred among men of whom the surgeons had no knowledge—men, that is, who had not been classed as sick. And concerning Salisbury it was reported, "It is certain that the men confined in this prison bore the impress of semi-starvation on their arrival in New York, although in the meantime every effort at recuperation had been made by the United States authorities and the Sanitary Commission." By official report, made at the time, of those received from Belle Isle, directly under the eye of the central Confederate authority, as early as October, 1863, "their frames were in most instances all that was left of them," "their appearance was wretched in the extreme," "a majority had scarcely vitality to enable them to stand," "some, indeed, unable to articulate." This account refers to men exchanged after confinement in the environs of Richmond itself, and upon whom the subsequent intermission of exchange could have no influence. Those desirous of determining the facts, regardless of special pleas, are referred to the invaluable third part of the 'Medical and Surgical History of the War of the Rebellion,' prepared under the direction of the Surgeon-General of the Army, from which the most of these data have been taken.

EIGHT YEARS' WORK OF THE IRISH LAND COMMISSION.

DUBLIN, January 1, 1890.

THE report of the Irish Land Commission, just published, gives the result of eight years' work under the act passed in 1881, which, with several amending acts, established fixity of tenure at fair rents in place of tenancy at will as the general rule of tenure for Irish farmers. The chief work of the Commission has been the fixing of fair rents, although an enormous amount of time and money has been spent in disposing of legal objections and points raised to prevent tenants of various classes from taking advantage of the law.

The official figures are as follows: 233,607 rents have been fixed by all methods under the Act—*i. e.*, by rent suits before the Court; by registered agreements; by arbitrations. The farms on which these rents were fixed extend to 6¾ million acres. The old rents amounted to £4,581,761, the new rents amount to £3,650,026; the reduction in the old rents being 20.3 per cent. The number of agricultural holdings in Ireland to which the Act would apply is under half a million; so that in round numbers half the rents in Ireland, on farms covering about one third of the whole area, have been judicially fixed. The judicial tenants have a right to hold in perpetuity as long as they pay their rents, which may be raised every fifteen years. The number of rent suits and appeals now awaiting trial would, at the normal rate of progress for the last year, occupy the courts for two years; and before all outstanding tenancies could be dealt with, those fixed in the earlier years of the Commission would again be capable of being brought before the Court.

The political and social effects of the Land Law are not very encouraging. The country in general is not a whit more favorably disposed towards British law than it was ten years ago; the farmers are still discontented and disappointed with the results of legislation; the lowered rents are not obtained more easily; the landlords are nursing their grievances, and protesting beforehand against further threatened invasions on their estates. A paralyzing atmosphere of uncertainty surrounds the property which the law purported to confer on the tenant as well as that which still remains to the landlord.

The Land Law of 1881 has certainly not been a success; it has done something, but not much. The plan of campaign—that is, combined refusal to pay more than a certain amount of rent—was invented while the Land Law was in operation. The campaign is in full swing in some parts of the country. Arbitration, where one of the judges would be chosen by the tenants, is offered to the landlords, who in reply say: The rent courts are open: go into them, and we will and must accept the result. The explanation of this failure of the law is that it gave the shadow, not the substance, of what it promised; it enacted that "fair" rents should be fixed, but left unrepealed the unfair provisions of previous acts to remedy which the Act of 1881 was passed. The land tribunals, which should have been courts of conciliation, have acted strictly as courts of law; they were manned by individuals almost necessarily drawn from classes more in sympathy with the landlords than the tenants, and their decisions have neither commanded respect nor been considered fair. A fall of 20 per cent. in rents was manifestly insufficient to meet the effect of diminished prices of produce, and left the tenants still paying rent on their own improvements; definite decisions have in many cases been to the effect that valuable works effected by the tenants on their farms belonged by law to the landlords. Large arrears of the old high rents in many cases prevented the tenants from being free agents in agreeing on judicial rents, and they sub-

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mitted to whatever terms their landlords proposed.

In this state of the law, and with widespread dissatisfaction among the farming class, it is not to be wondered at that the landlords' estate in the land should be in danger from further legislation. Government for the moment is on the landlords' side ; but Parliament is not always an impartial tribunal of appeal ; it is apt to be influenced by sinister motives, for each party wants to secure votes, and when five-sixths of the members are not Irish citizens, not acquainted with the intricacies of the subject, not aware of the necessities of the country they legislate for, Irish questions submitted to Parliament are more likely to be dealt with on the grounds of English convenience than of justice and expediency for the Irish people.

As an example of the shortcomings of the Land Law, a large farmer in the County Dublin, whose ancestors for at least four generations held the same farm, on which the present occupant and his father have laid out at least $35,000 in permanent improvements, while it is not pretended that the landlord ever spent anything, has, since 1876, spent in law $5,000 endeavoring to take advantage of the protective clauses of various land acts. He was defeated on technical points in every suit, and the large amount of capital he has sunk in the land is by law his landlord's property. The poorer occupants of smaller farms cannot bear the cost of such suits, and wisely, perhaps, agree to the landlords' terms, lest they should ruin themselves in the law courts.

The dual ownership established by the law of 1881, accompanied by uncertainty as to the respective rights and obligations of the two owners, prohibits improvement and deters from good cultivation. The Land Law has been amended and extended year after year, and now the Government have another Land Bill for Parliament's consideration in February. It is not surprising that a feeling of unrest prevails both among landlords and tenants; their interests are irreconcilable; a satisfactory tenure cannot be secured to the tenants except by getting rid of the landlords. This has been done to a small extent by the Purchase Act of 1885, under which tenants can borrow from Government the price of their farms if the landlord agrees to sell, repaying the loan by an annuity of 4 per cent. for forty-nine years, and having liberty to pay off the whole or any part of the loan at any time. Parliament has, up to this, allocated £10,000,000 for this purpose; and 11,012 loans have been made, amounting to £4,629,655. Even this part of the Land Commission's work is embarrassed by political, legal, and agrarian difficulties. Landlords, taking advantage of arrear debts due by the tenants, have coerced them to purchase at high prices; tenants may also take advantage of the fact that estates in some cases must be sold without reserve, and bid what they like in a market where there is no competition. Not less than £30,000,000 worth of insolvent estates is under the management of the Court of Chancery, where the expenses of lawyers and receivers eat up the greater part of the rentals. Under our antiquated system of title and transfer, the costs of sale are enormous, the delays heart-breaking. The time occupied in making title to an estate, and in distributing the proceeds of sale, may extend to an indefinite number of years.

In this, as well as in their relations with tenants, the landlord class is reaping the fruits of long-continued opposition to every reform proposed. The difficulties connected with title and transfer make the policy of the Purchase Act of very questionable utility. It will, as years go on, be as difficult for the creditors or owners of the small estates now created by the State to sell their properties or realize their securities as it is for the present race of landlords and mortgagees. The same complications of title must necessarily grow up, and the embarrassed peasant proprietor will find himself between Scylla and Charybdis, equally liable to ruin by holding land he wishes to part with, or by trying to sell it under the existing law. Last session the Government introduced a feeble bill to establish local registries of title, but no progress was made with it. An attempt will again be made without doubt to legislate on this subject, but the conservative lawyer element in the House of Commons is opposed to any radical reform, and is strong enough to cause the rejection of, or to spoil, any such measure.

No legislation by the Imperial Parliament can be successful or permanent except on conditions which can hardly exist next session: (1.) Coercion should be suspended, for rents cannot be fairly fixed, nor terms of purchase fairly negotiated, while men can be, as they have been, imprisoned for advising tenants what combined action they should take in such matters. (2.) The assent of the Irish members as a body is essential to any measure which is to be of permanent operation. (3.) The semblance of fairness should be given to the Land Commission by putting on the Board as large a Nationalist and tenant as Conservative and landlord element. No attempt, with the exception of Gladstone's Land Bill of 1886, has ever been made by either Liberals or Conservatives to legislate on the Irish land question in accordance with Irish opinion or even in a spirit of conciliation; it has therefore become an article of faith in Ireland that land-tenure reform can only be carried out by national Parliament. Balfour's contempt for Irish opinion is greater, but his disregard no more than that of his predecessors. It is not possible that legislation carried out in such a spirit can be successful.

AN IRISHMAN.

WILHELM VON GIESEBRECHT.

MUNICH, December 30, 1889.

THE death of Giesebrecht on the 15th of this month will bring surprise and grief to the many friends and readers who knew with what persistent energy the still vigorous old man was working at his life task, and who were hoping with him that he might be permitted to reach the limit he had set as the rational completion of his great work. He was writing still on his 'History of the German Imperial Period,' and was eager to complete the reign of Barbarossa as the crowning glory of the ancient imperial institution. Still, so keen was his sense of scholarly duty that, when the call came from his publishers for a new edition of the third volume, which should be ready before Christmas, he laid aside the inspiring work of composition, and undertook a complete revision of this volume, in order that the new edition might profit by whatever of value had appeared since the former one. To my inquiry in October why he did not intrust this uncongenial labor to some younger scholar, he replied that he could not bring himself to let anything go out into the world which had not passed through his own hands. Three days before his death his pupil and successor, Heigel, found him sitting at his work-table busying himself with the dreary task of making an index to the third volume.

Although the name of Giesebrecht will always be identified with the University of Munich, of which he was for twenty-seven years one of the chief ornaments, he was by birth and by residence for fifty years a North German. He was born in Berlin in the year 1814, the son of a school-teacher, and studied in his father's school and at the University of Berlin. Beginning as a student of classical philology, he was soon attracted by the teaching of Ranke and devoted himself to history, especially to that of Germany in the Middle Ages. His first teaching was at the Joachimthal Gymnasium in Berlin, where he published in the year 1855 the first volume of the 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kaiserzeit.' The reward for this work was the appointment as professor at Königsberg in the same year. Five years later he was called to Munich as the man who was likely to treat the history of Germany in a spirit that would not offend the various groups of German patriots, who were then at hopeless odds with each other as to the true solution of the "German problem."

Sybel, who had filled the same professorship but a short time, had made himself impossible in Munich by reason of his pronounced Prussianism, and had been forced to resign. In this position Giesebrecht continued until his death, though he had not lectured for the past four or five years. He was during more or less of this period also Secretary of the Historical Commission of the Bavarian Academy, a member of the Editing Commission of the 'Monumenta Germaniæ,' of the directory of the Germanic Museum at Nuremberg, and of the School Board of the city of Munich. As a North German and a Protestant, his position in Bavaria was a delicate one, but he filled it with a singular tact which those who have studied his writing will recognize as a characteristic of the man.

As a teacher, Giesebrecht was the centre of a group of young men who are now filling important places in the schools, universities, and archives of Southern Germany. He seems to have inspired them by the force of an amiable intellectual personality, rather than by any exceptional or original pedagogic gift. His influence was catholic and conciliatory, though his own point of view was clearly defined and not to be mistaken. His pupils hold him in most affectionate remembrance.

Yet it is not as a teacher that he will be most widely known. His name will be inseparably associated with the great work to which he devoted the chief powers of his life, the 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kaiserzeit.' The title indicates its scope. It is not a history of the Holy Roman Empire, for that would have called for a very different treatment and would have required a much greater extension as to time. The title must rather be translated, 'A History of Germany's Imperial Period,' and it is in this spirit of patriotic German enthusiasm that the whole work is conceived. It gives us a history of German and Italian affairs from 900 nearly to 1200, seen from the point of view of the Empire. It brings out into prominence as living and breathing men and women historical characters who had hitherto not filled a large place in the traditional history of the German people. Indeed, it has been harshly criticised as being too much a history of persons and too little a history of institutions and of political developments. This criticism may perhaps admit of two explanations. Giesebrecht had the idea, which a certain modern school regards with horror, that a book of history is written to be read; and no book written for a wide reading public, no matter upon how thorough study it may be based, can hope to escape violent criticisms from that school. Then, again, it can hardly be questioned that the emphasis upon personalities goes back of the his-

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torian to his material. The writers of the early middle ages were, in this respect, children who retold the tales of their heroes as they heard them from tradition or gathered them from the vague rumors of their own times. Whoever deals with them must be prepared to find his attention fixed upon persons, and it is only by a great effort that the modern historian can glean from the original sources, especially from the mediæval historians themselves, a knowledge of institutions and of parties. It was Giesebrecht's pleasure to emphasize the human and dramatic side of history. If, here and there, he yielded a little to the inevitable temptation of the dramatic historian, it could never be said of him that he allowed himself consciously to warp the evidence of his sources in his own behalf. As a Protestant, dealing with the time of Rome's most audacious claims upon the obedience of the world, he showed the same tact in his writing which he displayed in his personal intercourse with his Bavarian contemporaries. Yet it was natural that he should be drawn into many a literary controversy, and those who know the hateful spirit of petty spite and jealousy which marks German controversial writing, will recognize the self-control and dignity with which he met his opponents.

One cannot think of the loss of Giesebrecht without dwelling upon the conditions and prospects of the historical school in which he played so prominent a part. He belonged in that circle of elder professors and writers who may, without much exaggeration, be called the pupils of Ranke. Many of them were actually his pupils and all were largely inspired by his example. Of this group many have already finished their work—Waitz, Droysen, Nitzsch, and Duncker. Others, Mommsen, Sybel, Wattenbach, are still living and active. Ranke did not discover any new principle of historical composition or investigation. The basis of the "modern historical school" is nothing more than the simple proposition that, when one undertakes to repeat a story, he is in duty bound to make sure that it rests upon evidence as unimpeachable as human testimony can be. Obvious as this proposition seems to be, it had not, in the time before Ranke, been made much use of for pedagogic purposes. Ranke's great merit was that he brought into academic teaching the principle of historical research which he and every other really conscientious historian had always employed—or believed himself to be employing—in the writing of history. In other words, Ranke was the first person who began systematically to train historians as a part of the work of a university. He gathered about him in his *exercitationes historicæ* at Berlin a group of young men whom he inspired with his own love of truth, his accuracy, thoroughness, and diligence. In this school the pupil learned the trade of writing history. He was taught to collate manuscripts, to apply to them all known tests of genuineness, to question their authors as to capacity and accuracy and intention—in short, to prepare his story with all thoroughness before he began to tell it.

But Ranke had also another lesson to teach. He was not merely a collector of materials; he was a writer of admirable force and with no little charm of style. He wrote voluminously, and his books, resting upon enormous research, were singularly free from the smell of the lamp. His pupils gained, therefore, from him the lesson that all their training was a means, not an end. The names of Mommsen, Sybel, Droysen, Duncker, and Giesebrecht are connected each with some monumental work written for the great reading public as well as for scholars, and each already a classic within its field.

But now began with the second academic generation a new phase of the development. The German historian has not been, like the English one, a gentleman of letters, or perhaps even a clergyman or a diplomat. He has been, almost without exception, a teacher, and, like the rest of his countrymen, he has been moved by the laudable wish to magnify his office from its professional side. The children of Ranke became the intellectual parents of a progeny, numbered no longer by units, but by tens. They found it quite possible to apply in their teaching all those principles of research and of treatment which they had learned from their master and had been themselves applying in their own writings. But that other element of the historian, the large grasp upon the movement of human life, the instinctive right valuation of human motive, and the power to present his conclusions in a form to command attention—these things could not be taught to every pupil, could indeed hardly be taught at all. Naturally, therefore, the weight of the "modern historical school" came to be thrown upon the "professional" elements of the study, and its achievement in this direction can hardly be overestimated. In every field of historical inquiry, but especially in that of German history, the sources have been subjected to a searching analysis, and the results have been embodied in the form of improved editions and of countless hundreds of short treatises upon controverted points.

Meanwhile, the family of professional *Historiker* has gone on increasing. The great-grandchildren of Ranke are now to be counted by the score. In the University of Berlin there are at present twenty-one instructors in political history alone, not including those who teach the history of art, science, literature, law, etc. This great increase has been largely furthered by the rapid development of the historical "Seminar." From the modest beginning of Ranke's *exercitationes*, the Seminar has now become a recognized institution by itself. At Berlin and Leipzig it is an organization independent of the University, excepting that its director is a professor. It has its own rooms and its own library, and makes its own by-laws. It has done for the German student the service which we should regard as an essential duty of the University—to give him a quiet place where he may freely consult a considerable number of books. As to its permanent value for the cause of historical teaching and writing, opinions (even in Germany) are very much divided. Evidently its tendency is in the direction of extreme specialization, with all its attendant ills; it is helping to encourage a petty and pedantic view of scholarship, which is sure to react unfavorably upon the teaching as well as upon the writing of the future. It is accused by its opponents of being a hothouse for mediocrity, by means of which talents which might better be occupied with some mechanical work are coddled into a fictitious activity. That there is much danger in this direction must be apparent to any one who examines the voluminous productions of these schools, and tests it by the standards of actual value for the cause of learning. Whether the Germans, by wise measures of restraint, will entirely escape this danger, remains a question. For us in America the warning is a timely one, and we have to see to it that in our haste to copy whatever Germany sets before us, we do not suffer the phrase "a gentleman and a scholar" to vanish from our vocabulary.

In any effort to maintain a fair balance between the two views of history—as a "science" which may be taught, and as a branch of "polite learning" demanding above all an acute mind and wide cultivation—the scholars of the future can hardly fail to point to Giesebrecht's activity as a happy combination of both these elements.

E. E.

CHARLES IV. OF LORRAINE.

PARIS, January 9, 1890.

IT is marvellous to see with what zeal historical studies are now pursued; and I do not speak only of general history—each province, each town, of France has now its local historians. The province of Lorraine is assuredly one which deserves much interest, in virtue of its geographical position, of its relations with Alsace and with the Palatinate, of its dubious diplomacy, which so often threatened the most vital interests of France. In the east of France, there is an old proverb which says, "Lorrain, villain, traître à Dieu et à son prochain." The judgment is severe; it is hardly too severe for Charles IV. of Lorraine, who has recently found his historian. M. des Robert, who styles himself a member of the Academy of Stanislas (Stanislas was the Duke of Lorraine who made of Nancy the fine city which we now admire), has written two long volumes on the 'Campaigns of Charles IV., Duke of Lorraine and of Bar, in Franche-Comté, Alsace-Lorraine and Flanders, and in Germany.' The period embraced by the historian extends from 1634 to 1643.

Charles IV. was the son of François of Lorraine Vaudemont and of Christine of Salm, and was born on April 5, 1604. He was a great-grandson of Catherine de Médicis, and he certainly had in his blood something of the Italian condottiere. At the age of sixteen he took part in the battle of Prague, with his father, who was at the time the General of the Catholic League. He was only twenty when he became Duke of Lorraine by his marriage with the Duchess Nicole, the daughter of Duke Henri II., who was the true sovereign, as the Salic law did not exist in Lorraine. He was not contented with being the Duke Consort, and, in virtue of a supposed will of Duke René II., made in favor of the male line, he invited the States of Lorraine to proclaim his father, François of Vaudemont, Duke, and a few days afterwards his father abdicated in his favor (1625).

His marriage with Nicole was a forced union, and from the first day the Duchess was treated with contempt by her husband. She was a mere child, only thirteen years old, and when she became a woman she never succeeded in captivating her husband's affection. He was leading an agitated life, engaged in all kinds of intrigues. In 1632 he received at his court Gaston d'Orléans, who had fled from France, and who secretly married the Duke's sister. A royal army entered Lorraine, Gaston was obliged to fly to Brussels, and Charles IV. signed a treaty in which he abandoned four of his fortresses to Louis XIII. While Richelieu quelled the revolt of Montmorency, the French army invested Nancy, and Charles of Lorraine was forced to accept the Cardinal's terms, and to surrender more of his towns. Still, he would not cease to conspire with the enemies of the Cardinal; he was declared a rebel, Nancy was taken, and he fled, leaving his duchy in the hands of the French.

We find him in Besançon at the opening of M. des Robert's work. He had thrown his lot completely in with the Empire against France. He was also attracted in this imperial city by the charms of a young lady whom he had first seen in Brussels, Béatrix de Cusance, one of the handsomest women of her time (Van Dyke

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has left us her portrait). Charles himself was very handsome, and Béatrix had fallen in love with him. The Duchess Nicole had not followed him into exile; she was living at Fontainebleau, where she was a willing prisoner of France. Charles invited his wife to join him at Besançon, but his invitation was a mere form. M. des Robert gives in his notes the text of six inedited letters from Charles to his wife Nicole, written in 1634. Charles boldly asked for the hand of Béatrix de Cusance, saying that his own marriage, made by force, was null. Her parents refused her to him, and she was married in February, 1635, to the Prince of Cantecroix, who belonged to one of the most illustrious families of Franche-Comté.

The mutual passion of Charles and Béatrix was not diminished by her marriage, and, towards the end of the campaign which the Duke made in Franche-Comté, when he defended that province successfully against the Prince of Condé (the father of the Great Condé), we find him, during an illness, staying at the castle of Belvoir with the Princess of Cantecroix till he could be transported to Besançon. When he was obliged to retire from Franche-Comté by the forces of Bernard of Saxe-Weimar, who had become the ally of France, he left Béatrix at Sierck, a pretty town of Lorraine built on the River Moselle, and retreated by way of Luxembourg to Brussels, where he arrived in the month of April, 1639. He was lodged in the palace of the Cardinal-Infant with Prince Thomas of Savoy, who had also put his sword and his military genius at the service of Spain. Béatrix, who was in an advanced state of pregnancy, asked her mother, the Marchioness of Berzhes, who had a palace in Brussels, permission to visit her for her confinement. But Charles, seeing that her presence was not desired by the Cardinal-Infant, left Brussels and joined her at Sierck.

The Prince of Cantecroix died in September, 1637, and Béatrix was determined to become the wife of the Duke of Lorraine. The Duke was inclined at the time to negotiate with Richelieu and to join his forces with those of France; but the Duchess Nicole was the prisoner and the guest of the King of France, who could not abandon her interests, and Charles was unwilling to abandon the Princess of Cantecroix. He was also unwilling to betray the interests of Marguérite of Lorraine, the unrecognized wife of Gaston d'Orléans, who was in the hands of the Spaniards at Brussels. The Princess now openly called herself the Duchess of Lorraine. The real Duchess, Nicole, had delivered herself to the French after the capture of Nancy. She protested against the illegal union of her husband with Béatrix, which took place under the following circumstances: Charles, while in Brussels, having pretended to have received news of the death of Nicole, went into mourning, received the condolence of everybody, and started immediately for Besançon, where one of his servants, disguised as a priest, married him to the Princess of Cantecroix. The Duchess Nicole had not even been ill, and the comedy was soon the talk of all Europe. The Duchess protested, and a sentence of excommunication was threatened by Pope Urban VIII. against the Duke. Charles forbade his subjects to read the manifesto of his wife, which he pronounced to have been dictated by Richelieu.

Charles had two children by Mme. de Cantecroix—a daughter, who became Mme. de Lislebonne, and, two years afterwards, a son, who became the Prince of Vaudemont. Nicole only died seventeen years after the birth of this last prince, and childless. Béatrix, whom we will continue to call Mme. de Cantecroix, did all she could to hinder Charles from getting reconciled with France, but his situation had become too critical. We have not spoken of his campaigns. He was one of the best generals of his time, a worthy foe of Bernard of Saxe-Weimar, of the Duc de Rohan, of Turenne, who was getting his military education under Cardinal La Valette; but he was poor; he had great difficulty in keeping his soldiers together; he had barely been able to win victories, he was more often in retreat. His ally, Gaston d'Orléans, lived quietly at Blois; could he not live quietly at Nancy? The negotiation with Richelieu was long and difficult. Charles acted boldly; he threw himself almost unconditionally into the hands of Louis XIII. "My cousin," said the King to him at the first interview at St. Germain, "the past is completely forgotten; I think only of giving you in future proofs of my friendship."

Richelieu was not sentimental; he imposed hard conditions on the Duke, and made himself, in reality, the master of all the strongholds of Lorraine. Charles was treated like a vassal; he had to present the King of France with the County of Bar, in his own name as well as in that of the Duchess Nicole. Nancy was to remain in the hands of the King till the conclusion of the general peace. Charles IV. did not stay long in Paris: he hurried back to Lorraine in order to organize his army, leaving the Duchess Nicole in Paris. He continued to live with the Princess of Cantecroix, who was proverbially known as his "femme de campagne" (his camp follower). He began to conspire with the enemies of Richelieu as soon as his forces were reorganized. He certainly was looked upon by the Lorrainers as the representative of their cause. Béatrix also became popular, notwithstanding the irregularity of her position. The Spaniards made him offers every day, and valued him more since he had shown that he could join their enemies. Richelieu knew the duplicity of Charles, and when the Duke asked permission to remain neutral between France and Spain, he was not long in understanding that this neutrality covered a real hostility. In vain did the King of France offer the Duke of Lorraine the command of one of his armies: the Duke insisted upon reëntering into possession of the whole of his duchy. Finally, he threw off the mask and joined the Imperials.

It is impossible not to be struck with a certain analogy between the policy of the Duke of Lorraine and of the Dukes of Savoy, who have also been accused of traditional treachery. Lorraine, as well as Savoy, was between the hammer and the anvil; there was, however, this difference: the princes of the house of Savoy were more or less consciously the representatives of a cause, of the cause of Italy, of Italian nationality. Who would say that there ever was a Lorraine nationality? Italy is a well-defined geographical province; Lorraine has no natural frontier, except on the side of the Vosges; it is too small a province to pretend to be a country. France was manifestly obliged to absorb Lorraine, and the struggles of Charles IV. were of no avail.

It is to be hoped that M. des Robert will continue his work and follow Charles IV. to the end of his adventurous career. He is a most inexperienced writer, but he has taken great pains in collecting documents. An historian will find ample details in his books, which will serve to give us a living image of this singular Don Juan in love, and his politics—this condottiere who lived for nothing but for war, who was never contented with a half sovereignty, and who could never conquer the plenitude of sovereignty; a curious type, on the whole, semi-feudal and semi-modern, with extraordinary vices and extraordinary qualities; not to be forgotten, and deserving to have a place among the men who had something left in them of the spirit of the sixteenth century, though they lived in the seventeenth, and contributed to form the new equilibrium which persisted till the French Revolution.

Correspondence.

PRESIDENT LINCOLN AS A COLONIZATIONIST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Southern people may not be very wise at this time in suggesting the plan of colonizing the colored people as a solution of the race question; but in doing so they are only carrying out Mr. Lincoln's favorite idea. He did not believe that the two races could get on in a condition of freedom. It is to be hoped that he was wrong in this conviction, but it was honestly held; and the Southern people are just as honest in holding it as he was. He pressed the colonization of the colored people in his annual messages to Congress in December, 1861, and December, 1862; in his message of April, 1862, approving the bill for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia; in his appeal to the border States in July, 1862; and in his Emancipation Proclamation of September, 1862. Congress responded to his views by provisions for colonization in the acts of April 16, 1862, the section passing in the Senate by a vote of 27 to 10, as a part of the bill abolishing slavery in the District of Columbia; the act of June 7, 1862, for the collection of taxes in insurrectionary districts; and the acts of July 16 and 17, 1862, in relation to confiscation.

The State Department, at Mr. Lincoln's instance, instructed our ministers to promote it with foreign governments having tropical dependencies, as England, France, Holland, and Denmark (Seward to Adams, September 30, 1862; Adams to Seward, October 30, 1862; Seward to Adams, November 18, 1862); but Earl Russell declined to coöperate in the scheme. Mr. Lincoln directed, September 12, 1862, the Secretary of the Interior to procure information as to the best places for the colored people to be sent to; and Central America and the province of Chiriqui in New Granada were favored as points for colonization. Mr. Lincoln persuaded Senator Pomeroy of Kansas, who had opposed the scheme in the Senate, to assist in its execution; and the Ile-à-Vache, a Haytian possession, was finally selected as the place. Mr. Lincoln, with his own signature—an exceptional act for a President and showing his extraordinary interest (Senator Doolittle a subscribing witness)—entered, December 31, 1862, into a contract with one Bernard Kock of New Orleans to ship 5,000 negroes to that island; but this contract being rescinded, another contract was made April 6, 1863, with Paul S. Forbes and Charles K. Tuckerman of New York. A ship-load of 453 colonists, gathered mostly about Fortress Monroe, sailed April 13 to the island, and arrived May 3. They had a sad time of it, and, being thinned by disease, death, and desertion, those who were left—about 300—were brought back by our Government, and reached Washington March 18, 1864. The firm of Forbes & Tuckerman lost money by the venture, and Tuckerman received the Mission to Greece as a compensation.

So ended the attempt, backed by the Govern-

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ment, to solve the great problem according to the plan on which Mr. Lincoln had set his heart. *

THE RULE OF APPOINTMENTS TO THE SUPREME COURT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When the Supreme Court of the United States was first organized, its justices were appointed from six of the most important States—Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina. From that time until the civil war the members of that court were, I believe, quite generally drawn one from each judicial circuit. Your recent editorial, "The Supreme Court," quotes President Lincoln's opinion that such considerations should be of weight; but it has not been noticed, perhaps, that the precedents which he disregarded, under compulsion, were somewhat neglected during the terms of his Republican successors, and first revived by President Cleveland in his two nominations. What is now the First Circuit (Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island), has had one, and only one, representative on the bench of the Supreme Court from 1789 to the present time. The same is substantially true of the Second Circuit, including Vermont, Connecticut, and New York; it had the Chief Justiceship from 1789 to 1800, and has had an unbroken series of associate justices from 1806 to 1890. In what is now the Third Circuit there was one interruption. Justice Washington of Virginia was appointed in 1798 to succeed Justice Wilson of Pennsylvania, but on his death the succession reverted to the Third Circuit in the person of Justice Baldwin, and there it has remained ever since. I think a more careful examination than I have been able to make here in Berlin would show that the same was approximately true in the other circuits. During the civil war the Fourth and Fifth Circuits which included the seceding States, lost their representatives by death or resignation. The Fourth Circuit has not yet regained its position on the bench; the Fifth regained it in 1880 by the confirmation of Justice Woods of Georgia. When President Cleveland entered office, two circuits, the Fourth and the Seventh, were unrepresented, while the Sixth had secured their two members in addition to its own. His nomination of Senator Lamar to succeed Justice Woods was in accord with the precedent of drawing the successor from the same circuit. The death of Chief-Justice Waite, one of the three members from the Sixth Circuit, gave an opportunity to introduce greater equality. The opportunity was accepted in the nomination of Mr. Fuller from the Seventh Circuit, which had been unrepresented since the resignation of Justice Davis in 1877. If a successor to Justice Matthews had been found by President Harrison in the Fourth Circuit, each of the nine would have had one representative. As it is, the Eighth has two. Whether the precedent to which President Cleveland would seem to have returned, and which President Harrison has neglected, be a wise one, others must decide.

Yours respectfully,
Walter F. Willcox.

Berlin, January 6, 1890.

"THE RESIDUUM" IN BALTIMORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While reading the discussions by your correspondents as to the political party to which the bulk of the "Residuum" is attached, it occurred to me that the following facts might be of interest:

In Baltimore city, in 1888, Mr. Cleveland received 44,604 votes and Gen. Harrison 39,559. Of the votes for Harrison, about 12,500 were cast by colored people and 27,000 by white persons—that is, about five white men voted the Democratic ticket for every three who voted the Republican. This proportion was, however, not uniform throughout the city. The fashionable quarter of Baltimore lies between Park Avenue on the west, Centre Street on the south, and Jones Falls on the east and north. This area includes Mt. Vernon Place and the best portion of Charles, St. Paul, and Calvert Streets. Nearly all of this area lies within the First and Second Precincts of the Eleventh Ward, and the Eighth Precinct of the Eighth Ward. In these precincts Gen. Harrison had 315 votes, about 110 of which were cast by negroes, leaving 205 to be given him by the whites. Mr. Cleveland received 867, or more than four times as many. The Third, Fifth, Sixth, Seventh, and Ninth Precincts of the Second Ward, the First and Fourth of the Fourth Ward, and the First, Second, and Fourth of the Ninth Ward include within their boundaries the worst slums in the city, known locally as the "Causeway," the "Meadow," and the "Space." They have within them 417 saloons, brothels, or gambling hells, or about one to every ten registered voters. Gen. Harrison received in these precincts 977 votes, of which about 200 were contributed by negroes, leaving 777 as the number given for him by white men. The vote for Mr. Cleveland was 2,433, or more than three times as great. In the worst precinct of the whole lot, the First of the Ninth Ward, in which there are about 100 saloons and worse places, or one to every five voters, the white vote was distributed about as follows: Cleveland 390, Harrison 30; Cleveland thus getting about thirteen times as many as Harrison. On the other hand, in the First Ward, in southeast Baltimore, and in the Eighteenth Ward, in southwest Baltimore, the population of both wards being largely composed of the better class of mechanics and skilled laborers, largely of American or German extraction, although there are a great many Irish in each ward, the white vote was divided about as follows: Cleveland 4,072, Harrison 3,925.

In other words, in this city the Democratic party comprises the enormous majority of the residents in the fashionable neighborhoods and in the "slums," as well as practically all the Irish vote, while American and German mechanics and laborers are not unevenly divided; and whatever preponderance there is, is probably in favor of the Republican party.

Very respectfully, J. C. R.

Baltimore, January 25, 1890.

NEW MATTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One of the most important subjects with which our Government has to deal in the future is the currency. It is, perhaps, even more important than the tariff, which is in the main a tax upon the many for the benefit of the few, though it has collateral effects which are perhaps even worse. But if we consider how completely every act and condition of our lives is bound up with the currency, that it is as essential to life itself as the atmosphere we breathe, we can understand that its purity is as important as that of the atmosphere. A volume might be written on the misery which has been caused by unsound currencies, and the miracles in restoration of public health which have followed upon their reform.

Our national-banking system is probably, and, in proportion to its development, certainly, the strongest in the world. The requirement of a large percentage of cash reserve against deposits is a rock foundation which has carried us for twenty years without serious disaster, and may do so through many more such periods, if its strength is not too severely tried by the enormous superstructure of State banks called trust companies. It is worth noting that, from the Revolution to the Civil War, all the serious financial trouble of the country came from the State banks.

As regards currency, apart from banking, the case is widely different. We have four kinds already in existence—greenbacks, national-bank notes, gold certificates, and silver certificates—while a fifth is looming up in the future on the fearful and wonderful plan proposed by Secretary Windom. As the Government debt is paid off, the basis of the national-bank notes is disappearing, and if that process should become complete, the whole system would be under the direct control of the Government—that is, of committees of Congress worked by the lobby. Is that a promising outlook?

If we claim that our system of deposit banking is stronger and better than that of Great Britain, we can afford to concede to her the advantage in respect to currency. The system established by the Act of 1844 has proved itself, after half a century, as it is the most scientific in theory, to be also the soundest in practice, of any currency not wholly metallic, and, if transplanted to this country, perhaps with some modifications, would give us in this respect what we most need. But what chance it there of Congress doing this or anything like it? There is not enough plunder in it for the private interests which make up the lobby, which rules the committees. It is conceived altogether too much from the point of view of the public welfare for which nobody cares—that is, nobody who has any power to do anything.

The English Act of 1844 is equally well known as Peel's Act—that is, it was the work of one man; of course, subject to his responsibility to Parliament and public opinion. All our financial success during the war, and, under the circumstances, it was very great, was owing to the fact that Congress, frightened into submission, surrendered the subject into the hands of Mr. Chase. No doubt Congress did save the country from immense disaster by resolutely refusing to allow the greenbacks to exceed $450,000,000; but then that is just what Congress is fitted for and can do best, namely, to hold the one-man power in check, that is, exercise the veto power, which is now so absurdly applied at the other end.

As there is no subject more important than the currency, so there is none which more needs the hand of one man, representing the national interest and authority, and sobered by the consciousness that he has to fight the battle with local interests under the eye of the nation. It may be said that we have no Secretaries of the Treasury available for such work. I answer that our Secretaries are quite good enough for the work we give them to do. If the Treasury were made a first-class place, with first-class work to accomplish and first-class reputation to be won, and the candidates were tried by fire in Congressional debate, we may rely upon it that the right man would, ere long, come to the front, just as in time of dire need there came to us Lincoln and Grant. G. B.

Boston, January 23, 1890.

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THE ANCESTRY OF WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My friend Mr. Whitmore has kindly sent me a copy of your last number containing an interesting letter from "C." about "The Lost Washington Wills," etc. If "C." will look into vol. 43 (p. 81) of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, or into my 'Gleanings' (Part iii., p. 299), he will find a large abstract of the will of Washington's grandfather, Lawrence Washington (1697), of which Sir Isaac Heard seems to have made an abstract which he enclosed in a letter to Washington. That will, as my 'Gleanings' show, was proved in the Prerogative Court of Canterbury (Book Noel 186), 10 December, 1700, by the oath of Mildred Gale *als* Washington (wife of George Gale), one of the executors, power reserved for the other two, etc. And my English friend Mr. J. C. C. Smith furnished to the *Genealogist* of January, 1883 (vol. 7), some extracts from the will of Mrs. Gale, made during the lifetime of her last husband and with his consent. Her husband took probate of her will and gave bonds for guardianship of the children, John, Augustine, and Mildred Washington. Mr. Smith appended a pedigree from which it appeared that George Gale removed to Maryland, where four sons of his were living in 1712.

I am obliged to "C." for his extract from Lodge's Life of Washington. I wish I had known of it before, when I was in England and *warm* on the subject. I should have liked to ferret out the "C. H." at whose house Col. John Washington was "sometimes seen." I rather wonder that some good friend did not bring this to my notice as a suggestive clue.

I should like exceedingly to have the privilege of looking over Col. Chester's collection concerning the family of Roades. That is a branch of the Washington problem which should receive more attention than I have felt at liberty to bestow upon it. I have, to be sure, some unpublished notes, one of which, I recollect, seemed to me quite important as bringing into intimate relations a respectable family of Roades and that branch of the family of Sandys which was settled in Cambridgeshire, especially important in view of the mention made of places in Cambridgeshire by Dame Margaret (Washington) Sandys, a sister of the Lawrence Washington who, as I suggest, married Amphillis Roades.

Henry F. Waters.

Salem, Mass., January 25, 1890.

Notes.

The third and concluding volume of Fyffe's 'History of Modern Europe' (1848–1878) is in the press of Henry Holt & Co.

A desideratum of long standing has been an edition of Darwin's 'Voyage Round the World,' with views of the places visited and representations of the animals described. This is now announced by D. Appleton & Co. The illustrations are chiefly from sketches taken on the spot by R. J. Pritchett. The same firm will issue also 'Five Thousand Miles in a Sledge,' being a mid-winter journey across Siberia, by Lionel F. Gowing; 'Exercises in Wood-Working,' by Ivin Sickels, M.D.; 'Hygiene for Childhood,' by Francis H. Rankin, M.D.; and 'Evolution of Man and Christianity,' by the Rev. Howard MacQueary.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. are to reprint Prof. Richard T. Ely's 'Problems of To-day' and 'The Labor Movement in America.'

Thomas Whitaker will publish directly 'Church and Creed,' by Prof. Momerie; 'The Battle of Life,' mission sermons by the Rev. Wilmot Buxton; 'Thought-Seed for Holy Seasons,' by the Rev. Robert S. Barrett; and a 'Treatise on Dogmatic Theology,' in two volumes, by Prof. Buel.

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation 'A Technical Dictionary,' by Park Benjamin; a 'Railroad Engineers' Field-Book and Explorers' Guide,' by H. C. Godwin; and 'Simple Elements of Navigation,' by Lucien Young, U.S.N.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'Plant Organization,' a guide in private or class study, by Prof. R. Halsted Ward of the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute.

Funk & Wagnalls have in preparation 'Wendell Phillips the Agitator,' by Carlos Martyn; 'A Cyclopædia of Temperance and Prohibition,' in a single volume; 'The Economics of Prohibition,' by the Rev. J. C. Fernald; 'The Seven Churches of Asia,' by Howard Crosby, D.D.; and 'Calvary Pulpit,' sermons by R. S. MacArthur, D.D.

King's 'Hand-book of the United States,' edited by the competent hand of M. F. Sweetser, with revision of the various sections by eminent experts, will make a volume of some 700 pages, and be profusely illustrated with maps and pictures.

The Oneida Historical Society of Utica, N. Y., is undertaking a new and more complete list of historical societies in the United States. The Corresponding Secretary is Gen. C. W. Darling, and he is prepared to send blank circulars pointing to the information desired. We miss queries (other than "Annual Expenditures for Publications?") that would help determine the real *life* of such societies beyond mere collection.

Subscriptions are invited by N. Murray, P. O. drawer 2, Baltimore, Md., to a proposed volume of the principal literary essays and studies of Prof. Basil L. Gildersleeeve of Johns Hopkins University. The edition will be limited. The topics are: "Limits of Culture," "Classics and Colleges," "University Work in America," "Grammar and Æsthetics," "Legend of Venus," "Xantippe and Socrates," "Apollonius of Tyana," "Lucien," "The Emperor Julian," "Platen's Poems," "Maximilian, Emperor of Mexico," and Occasional Addresses.

A revision of Flügel's well-known German-English Lexicon by the son and grandson of the founder is now passing through the press in Leipzig.

A flat quarto 'Souvenir Volume of the Centennial Celebration and the Catholic Congress, 1789–1889' (Detroit: Wm. H. Hughes), contains the proceedings of the first American Catholic Congress and the dedication of the Catholic University during the past year. As Dr. Henry F. Brownson, who writes the introduction, thinks "it can hardly be doubted that this is destined to be a Catholic land," Catholic discoverers having been the first to claim it for "Christ's heritage," there ought to be a lively interest in the personality of the divine instruments in this not inconsiderable job. The publisher meets this demand by offering a very large number of portraits of the Catholic clergy and laity associated with the two events mentioned above.

A very ample 'Dictionary of Quotations in Prose from American and Foreign Authors, including translations from Ancient Sources,' edited by Anna L. Ward (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.), supplements the same editor's 'Dictionary of Poetical Quotations.' There are 6,000 extracts from 553 authors, arranged under catch-words, with indexes both of the authors and the extracts. The editor has made her own choice, without regard to the familiarity of the quotations. The most quoted authors are Alcott, Beecher, Carlyle, Channing, Beaconsfield, Emerson, Hazlitt, Johnson, Ruskin, Shakspere, Holland, Bacon, Amiel, Landor, Lowell, Cicero, and the Hares. Among minor names we notice Birrell, Winter, Stedman, Hamerton, Haweis, Joseph Roux, Mabie, Scudder, Nadal, etc., many of whom are fully represented. These names indicate the quality of the book, which will prove serviceable to those who have occasion for such a volume.

The Rev. Washington Frothingham has collected from his journalistic labors of many years a volume under the title 'Our Book' (G. W. Dillingham), and has coupled with his own name as author that of the late Charlemagne Tower; the share of the latter having been to suggest the work and generously provide funds for its publication. The articles are brief, often hardly more than paragraphs, but also frequently continuing the same subject under a series of minor headings. They are very various in matter—literary, biographical, and historical—and afford a curious monument of newspaper labor, and, we will add, of the direction of the munificence of a millionaire Harvard graduate.

President Andrews of Brown University is the author of a text-book of political economy for the use of colleges and schools, entitled 'Institutes of Economics' (Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.). A peculiarity of the treatise is the use of heavy type for the chief words, which is, perhaps, convenient for students, but makes the book painful reading for those who are not obliged to cram for examination. The author follows to a great extent the theories of the German writers upon the subject—we can hardly call it science as they treat it—but refers to many opposing views. A valuable feature is the abundance of instructive notes, which form a running commentary upon the text. Owing to the extremely condensed form of the treatise, which numbers only about 225 pages, many statements appear to us to be too sweeping, but instructors in this department will find it a convenient summary of doctrine.

'The Essentials of Physical Diagnosis,' by Dr. J. Wallace Anderson (Macmillan & Co.), a little book for medical students, is clearly written and correctly named.

'Electricity in Facial Blemishes,' by Dr. P. S. Hayes (Chicago, W. T. Keener), is intended for the medical profession, and gives the author's method of procedure, which seems effective but delicate, so that its successful employment will probably not extend beyond expert hands.

'Artists' Wives' and 'Jack' are the two latest volumes by Alphonse Daudet that have appeared in the series of prettily illustrated translations published by George Routledge & Sons. Both bear date of the present year, though they have been out for a couple of months at the least. 'Jack' is the well-known novel of the same name in the French, a somewhat too long and quite too distressing history of a child to whom the *recherche de la paternité* is not permitted by French law. The other, a translation of 'Les Femmes d'Artistes,' has all the appearance of being a collection of magazine sketches, though we do not remember seeing any of them before. They are plainly early work, one of them being obviously a first sketch of the very offensive poet whose full portrait is drawn in 'Jack.' The common theme of all of them—the incompatibility of the artistic temperament with the conditions of every-day life—also, perhaps, points in the same direction. Both translations are by Mrs. Laura Ensor. The illustrations,

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some of them very good, have been taken over from the French editions.

We have received thus far of Prof. De Gubernatis's 'Dictionnaire International des Écrivains du Jour' (Florence: Louis Niccolai), the first eleven parts, carrying the work down to Jalabert. When completed it will deserve a place in all public and the best private libraries alongside of Vapereau, 'Men of the Time,' 'Celebrities of the Century,' Kürschner's 'Literatur-Kalender,' and like books of reference. Nevertheless it is a pity that the editing is not characterized by a German thoroughness and exactitude. We note among omissions the Spanish novelist Galdós; the German theologian, Oscar von Gebhardt, Tischendorf's successor as editor of the Greek New Testament, the Fathers, and the 'Texte und Untersuchungen zur Geschichte der altchristlichen Literatur'; Karl Goedecke, author of 'Grundriss der Geschichte der deutschen Literatur,' one of the most important works of its kind, of 'Goethe's Leben,' and editor of all the recent Cotta editions of Goethe and Schiller; H. von Holst; John Burroughs, Dr. O. W. Holmes, Rev. George E. Ellis, author of the 'Life of Rumford,' etc., etc. The American portion needs a thorough overhauling. Mr. Howells's middle name is omitted; the titles of several of his works are enclosed in quotation marks as if one, *e. g.*, 'A Chance Acquaintance, poems'; 'The Garroters' becomes 'The Garreters.' T. W. Higginson and John Fiske are said, the one to have been born, the other to reside, in "New-Cambridge," and the historical works of both these writers are overlooked. Under Willard Fiske, the *Nation* is planted in Boston. Edgar Fawcett is disguised as "Edgard Fawcet." Charles W. Eliot is said to be President of "*Harvard May.*" Such blundering is not confined to English. On p. 997, under Freytag, "Iago and Ingraban" stands for "Ingo," etc.; "Das Rest der Zaunkönige," for "Das Nest," etc.; "Karl Matloy," for "Karl Mathy." On p. 996, under Adolphe Frey, Salis-Seewis appears twice as "Salis-Seervis." On p. 1113, Gescheidlen is entered "Gescheiden." The Italian side of this dictionary is, evidently, the one for which we must be most grateful, and which we can trust most implicitly.

Remarkable accuracy in the printing of English is to be set down to the credit of Egisto Rossi, author (after two visits to this country) of a monograph on 'La Istruzione Pubblica negli Stati Uniti' (Rome, 1889). Rossi is very favorably disposed to our common-school system, and to the spirit of home rule and self-help on which it is based, and which he would fain foster among his own countrymen. He points to Franklin, Morse, Howe, Bell, and Edison as emanations from the common school, and not a spontaneous product of soil or race. The brochure fills 150 pages 4to, and is indexed. It abounds in useful tables and well-marshalled statistics.

A fourth number of the catalogue of the Codici Palatini in the National Central Library of Florence, and a seventh in that of the Codici Panciatichiani in the same library, are before us. The former contains the preliminary matter designed to introduce the completed volume, and two admirable indices to the prose and poetry. Seventy pages of "first lines" offer a tempting field for the imagination of poets of all countries, with many a modern application: "Gallia superba, che d'armata gente"; "O Monarchi Europei, ch' armi tonanti"; "Nel giorno che i duo Re col terzo Mauro" (the triple alliance), etc.

Part 18 of the new 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (Westermann) embraces maps of the Balkan Peninsula, of southeastern Africa (with side maps of Abyssinia and Zanzibar), and the West Indies.

The latest issues of *L'Art* (Macmillan) have been occupied still with the Exposition, particularly with the Century of Painters, in connection with which a great number of portraits have been reproduced, as was most fitting. But sculpture and ceramics, and what Chaucer calls goldsmithrie, the art of Japan and of Persia, have also been taken up. In No. 611 P. G. Molmenti speaks sensibly, but with deep feeling, of industrial encroachments upon the beautiful in Venice, and of the general incongruity of the later architecture with that which has made Venice the attraction of the world. A projected post-office promises to be one of the worst examples.

The latest issue of the Bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains an interesting account, with plates, of a signature of the name Wllm Shakspeare, with the words "hundred and twenty poundes" following, found in the binding of a Plutarch of 1603, purchased ten years ago. The question whether this is an autograph of Shakspere is elaborately discussed by the Librarian, who arrives at a conclusion not unfavorable (but also not decisive) to its authenticity. The probability of forging is very slight; the age of the writing is certainly very great; but it is still possible that the name was written by another than Shakspere's hand. Careful comparison with the true autographs is made, and both resemblances and differences are pointed out. The plates aid the reader to an entire comprehension of the facts in the case, and place the material for judgment before the eye.

A portrait of the new Supreme Court Justice, David J. Brewer, stands as frontispiece to the January number of the *Green Bag*, which is otherwise noticeable for an article on "Women Lawyers in the United States," by one of them (Leila J. Robinson), with numerous portraits in the fashion of this journal. "The woman lawyer," we are told, "exists to quite as numerous a degree in the married state as in that of single blessedness," and perhaps a majority began to study after marriage. "Our practice is general in character," writes a lawyer of himself and wife. Miss Robinson herself was the occasion of the Massachusetts laws admitting women to the bar and to justiceships of the peace.

Mr. Stead's new *Review of Reviews* is typographically a reminder of the editor who debased the *Pall Mall Gazette* in the same way. It is cheap-looking to the last degree. It opens with a lot of facsimiles of autograph letters from Gladstone, Salisbury, and other magnates in response to the editor's prospectus and inquiry what they thought of that sort of thing. There is to be a monthly "character sketch" (for January, Henry M. Stanley). There is a list of the new books and blue books of the month, and an index to salient articles in periodicals. The general appearance of the first number of this sixpenny monthly is higgledy-piggledy.

Dr. Schaff is the latest to add a pamphlet, 'Creed Revision in the Presbyterian Churches,' to the flood, past and impending, on the subject of Presbyterian agitation over the Westminster Confession (Scribners). His Lutheran antecedents and Lutheran theology, always frankly avowed during his long service in the Presbyterian Church, make him a fit example and advocate of tolerance in interpreting the creed, and his learning on all the points at issue is, of course, ample. The most significant thing about the progress of the controversy thus far is, however, the small weight that learning and theological expertness appear to be exerting. The anti-revisionists seem to have the best of the argument, logically and ecclesiastically, but the *Zeitgeist*, or something else, has got hold of the vast body of the younger ministers and the elders, who have little or nothing to say in the debate, but who vote with surprising unanimity in favor of revision.

—The February *Atlantic* is a remarkably full number. Old readers of the magazine will not make a mistake if they turn at once to the pages of its oldest contributor, and enjoy the bright wit and latter-day wisdom of Dr. Holmes, who is as happily discursive as ever, and entertains us particularly in this instalment of "Over the Teacups" with a description of life on the planet Saturn, where, it appears, some of our "reforms" have been realized. The most inveterate of theorizers cannot but smile at the conceit of the Isopodic societies, "which insist on bringing back the original equality of the upper and lower limbs," and, by going about on all fours in a private way, hope "to bring the world round to them in the near future"; and no one will wonder at "the endemic disease of the planet, prolonged and inveterate gaping," ending in dislocation of the lower jaw. The Socialists who go under the name of Nationalists will also find instructive matter in the vigorous exposure of Mr. Bellamy's gospel by Francis Walker, in which, sarcastic as the writer is, the most biting passages are his clear statements of the exact meaning of the new doctrines; but President Walker plainly labors at a disadvantage from the flimsiness of the case he demolishes with his root-and-branch logic. Miss Preston's classical paper on the poet Ausonius is a pleasant revival of the early Gallo-Roman civilization, and contains some excellent renderings. The Bering-Sea Question is dealt with to the point that we cannot as a nation make claims the overthrow of which hitherto has been one of the chief honors of our international life. The new Japanese Constitution is outlined in a rather bald way by K. Kaneko; and, finally, there is an unusual number of notices of interesting books in many departments. The magazine may well be congratulated upon such a showing of public and literary topics in addition to the three notable serials which it is giving to its readers.

— The most interesting paper in *Harper's* is Mr. Lathrop's informal report of familiar conversations with Edison, in which he endeavors principally to illustrate the natural inventiveness of Edison's mind, and tells some anecdotes of his early life and the first motions of his genius. It is said that Edison himself insists on the large deductive element in his inventions, and scouts the notion that he discovered anything; he attributes his successes to long and persistent thinking. His career, as here stated, affords a striking confirmation of the truth that it is by taking step after step, and not by making great leaps, that genius attains its power. Another interesting paper of personal reminiscence is contributed by James Hogg, the Scotch writer, upon the habits and ways of De Quincey, in which there is nothing very novel, perhaps, but all is happily told, with a good proportion of that friendly charitableness which De Quincey stands in such need of. Gen. Wolseley's account of the standing army of Great Britain is of the type to be expected, and is handsomely illustrated; the New York banks are described by Mr. Wheatley in the same clear, compendious manner; a long paper on Benvenuto Cellini gives occasion for cuts of his most famous works; Jamaica is

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both a travel and a picture subject under the appreciative and artistic hand of Howard Pyle, and the relics of the Lake Dwellers are shown and commented upon in another illustrated paper. Mark Twain makes a humorous contribution by merely printing extracts, from an old medical guide, which do not need his grotesque remarks to appear in themselves monstrous jokes, though otherwise intended. There is a good proportion of verse, but none of it equal to the natural pathos and occasional grace of William Winter's lines upon "The Ship that Sailed."

— *Scribner's* opens with a new number of its African series, upon the Congo savages, in which a good deal of information is given about the tribes and the general characteristics of the Congo State by a competent hand, and the tales of the text are well supported by the physiognomy and surroundings of the natives, including a tree hung with relics of cannibalism. A biographical paper upon Ericsson is principally confined to the facts of the inventor's early life, his Swedish ancestry and bringing up, and a reminder of how much he accomplished. A second paper, however, which may bring the man's individuality nearer, is promised. Mr. Bishop gives a long and detailed account of the literary celebrities of Madrid, of whom he writes with many compliments, and he says a good word for the city itself, usually not highly praised by travellers. The accompanying portraits supply all that is lacking of personal description in the text. The archæological image recently brought from the bottom of a boring in Idaho is the subject of a brief paper; and Mr. Eugene Schuyler tells a pathetic story of a Minnesota emigrant who wandered to Servia and there hunted for his ancestor's treasure, with the assistance and charity of the Servian Prime Minister. He died without success, but there is some reason to think that the treasure was found. The kindness of the Prime Minister is one of the finest traits of this curious story. Mr. Mallock writes sympathetically on the subject of Hungarian castles, with a few prefatory pages of interest upon Palladian architecture. Mr. T. R. Sullivan contributes one of his highly finished short stories upon a romantic motive which belongs to a sort of literature that has passed away.

—The *Century* also brings us a distinctly literary article in a paper of reminiscences of Emerson by a college boy with whom he talked of literature and writing. The notes seem to have been carefully made, and the sentences have the Emersonian manner. The matter is necessarily old, but the picture of Emerson's friendliness with the collegian, his kind companionship and disposition to be helpful, is very happily drawn, and the article is a contribution to Emersoniana worth remarking. The opening paper upon Japan, by John La Farge, is a wonderfully effective rendering in words of artistic impressions of light and color and of the novelty of the Orient, very familiarly and accurately made, and will quicken interest in what is to come from the same pen. The writer has succeeded in the difficult task of giving the sense of enchantment which he felt, and he does it necessarily without effort. Joseph Jefferson deals with Forrest, of whom he speaks with much considerateness with respect to faults of temper, and he closes with an almost photographic glimpse of his first visit to Paris. The religious article is taken up with a discussion of St. Paul's position in freeing the new faith from its Judaizing influences. The Lincoln biography is brought to an end, and the war-paper is really upon Jeff Davis's capture, which is told from all the evidence, and may be regarded as settled in its incidents beyond any further disturbance by the historian. The French Revolution furnishes matter for some striking illustrations. The Congo State is also written of by the U. S. Commissioner, but without the lively directness of the English explorer. The new Constitutions of Washington and Montana, and Greek terracottas, are other subjects, and there is besides a quantity of fiction sufficient for those who do and those who do not enjoy dialect.

—Prof. A. B. Hart contributes to the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* for January an interesting article on the rise of American cities. He points out that in the United States not a city has had its situation determined by considerations of defence, and that in fact most of them are practically defenceless, a striking testimonial to the peaceful character of our age. As to the generalization that "it is much less important for a city to have the length of a great river behind it than to have a good harbor before it," we think that it is of little value, owing to "plurality of causes." The character of the surrounding country and the construction of railroads must be taken into consideration. Nor can we assent to the implication that in manufacturing cities, small and great, the public revenue is more likely to be misspent than in seaports. The returns of taxation do not support this view. The increase of cities having a population of 8,000 and over, from 1800 to 1880, has been from 6 to 286; the percentage of population rising from 3.9 to 22.5. These cities, which have nearly one-fourth of the population, have more than one-half of the foreign element. If the children of foreign parents are counted as foreigners, our large cities have now passed into foreign control. Very striking results appear from the comparison of the ages of Americans and foreigners in some of our cities. In Boston there were, in 1885, 275,000 American-born persons to 132,000 foreign-born. But of the natives 137,000 were minors, while of the foreigners only 12,000 were minors. In New York, of five persons above the age of thirty-five years whom we might meet in 1875, the chances were that four were born abroad. Both in Boston and New York the excess of the female population is due chiefly to the preponderance of foreign-born women. The large requirements of city households for domestic servants partly account for this. We should have been glad of data showing whether the population of our great cities would sustain itself independently of immigration; but it is perhaps impossible to determine this problem. We should be pleased to conclude with Prof. Hart that the government of the cities is likely to improve with experience and the education of the community; but unless this is to be taken as a mere abstract proposition, we fear that it might not be easy to establish it by induction, and we find nothing in this article to support it.

—We noted last March the very severe report of the Cambridge University examiners upon the work of the candidates for commercial certificates. They held it to be almost worthless, and passed only eight out of the forty-nine who were examined. Earlier in the previous year, in July, there had been ninety-seven candidates, of whom no more than seventeen passed. This year's report makes a better showing. In July sixty-six candidates presented themselves, of whom twenty-five obtained certificates. The falling off in the number of applicants was most likely due to the severity of last year's examination and report, but this seems to have been a salutary harshness, for the quality of the work of this year is much improved. A distinct advance has been made in the writing of French and German. The French and German conversation also is improved, many of the candidates having gone abroad during their holidays to get a little practice in it. The examiners say: "The impression left by the examination is that the work, as a whole, was much sounder than last year, and that in some schools the subjects prescribed have been intelligently taught, with results which have a real educational, as well as practical, value."

— A brilliant discovery has been made; and where in the world but at the Peabody Normal College at Nashville, Tenn. ? The plan has been invented of intrusting the temperature and the ventilation of each class-room to a committee consisting of students who are particularly interested in that room. These students are instructed in the special method of heating and in the proper means of ventilation for that particular room; they are provided with thermometers, and they doubtless pass an examination as to the delicacy of their sense of smell. They are then made absolutely accountable for the room being always in proper condition. It is singular that so simple a device as this should not have suggested itself to the heads of other institutions: a janitor, even if he were a scientific man, cannot be expected to take a deep interest in the air of a room which he is not obliged to sit in. Future generations will doubtless lament the backwardness of our civilization, when, to take two instances where every place of public resort would do as well, the Peabody Concert Hall in Baltimore has absolutely no means for letting out the intense heat produced by its numerous gas-jets, and when the Johns Hopkins University, the very hot-bed of chemical and physiological learning, holds its public lectures in a room so unprovided with air that persons of any olfactory delicacy find it very difficult to sit them through.

SALTER'S ETHICAL RELIGION.

Ethical Religion. By William Mackintire Salter. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1889. 8vo, pp. 332.

THE devoted leader of the Society of Ethical Culture in Chicago has here collected a number of lectures which were, for the most part, delivered before members of that body. Curiously enough, a volume containing several of these same lectures, in a German translation, was brought out in 1885 in Leipzig, so that Mr. Salter has received a favorable and well-deserved attention abroad before publishing in his own tongue.

The book is, as one might expect from its origin, rather didactic than speculative, and the author disclaims in his preface any other than a practical purpose. Mr. Salter's theory of ethics is, indeed, not entirely kept in the background in the course of the book; nor is he silent as to his opinions upon a number of philosophical and theological problems of a very grave sort. But, on the whole, as he tells us, he writes, not for "scholars," but for "men and women who are in the midst of the stress of life." He hopes to "refresh or invigorate the moral life" of his reader, to stir in some one "a divine discontent with himself and the state of society about him," and meanwhile to "nourish the hope that there is but one outcome of the course and evolution of things, namely, the victory of the good." Such a book must, as far as possible, be received on its own basis, and must be judged as a work of the "literature of power" rather than as a theoretically ambitious treatise.

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So regarded, Mr. Salter appears as a distinctly impressive and attractive personality, modest, courageous, simple-minded, generous, and earnest. As for his general doctrine, it is in sum this: Religion is at once "man's supreme interest," and the expression of "man's relation with what is ultimate and supreme in the world." But man's supreme interest is the reverence for the good, and morality is that which, "truly interpreted, does bring man into contact with the final nature of things." This latter proposition Mr. Salter defends by pointing out that, "whatever else I may doubt about, I cannot doubt the law of duty," a law which "is not made and cannot be changed by God or man," and which "belongs to the nature of things." Not only is the moral law, then, a supreme objective fact, but it could not conceivably be otherwise. To one who looks at the matter thus, "morality becomes religion. He alone does a genuinely moral act who does it because he must, because the nature of things bears down upon him to do it. For the crystal, religion would be to become a crystal; to own the pressure that would yield the perfect form. For man it can only be to be a man, to perform the human part of the human task."

This "nature of things" to which Mr. Salter thus appeals is, however, not to be found in the world of sense, as this world now is. Even science, "in the strict sense of the word, knows nothing of right and wrong." "To the pure understanding, virtue and vice do not exist." Facts might "seem as constant as day and night, and yet have no right to be." Nor is the ideal world of morality "another world alongside of the actual world," a Platonic world of eternal essences. Nor has the moral "nature of things" its true source of authority in the will of God. Mr. Salter more than once, in fact, protests against *any* theory which should say that the ideal is, here or elsewhere, as yet *realized*, for "that is an unsatisfactory view of life which leaves us nothing to do." Older forms of faith, too confident of the divine order, have in fact enervated men by assuring them that the right always wins. On the contrary, "justice is always failing in the world"; and while old religions say, "The ideal does rule," the new religion will say, "Let it rule." Even this true religion, like the morality of which it is the "blossoming out," nowhere exists at present (p. 23), but is to come. Its fundamental faith will be that "the note of authority seems to go along with a certain class of ideas," such as humanity and justice. In short, as to this whole relation of the authority of the moral law to the "nature of things," Mr. Salter nowhere speaks more clearly than when he says (p. 19), "The truest revelation, the truest voice of the nature of things, is not in what we see, but in our thoughts of what ought to be. Trust thy dreams, oh Reformer! thou comest never so nigh to the heart and spirit of things as in them."

Our author's "nature of things" is thus very frankly a paradoxical conception, involving a very baffling *esse in potentia* as the "supreme truth" behind our world of experience. In fact, Mr. Salter's moral law, notwithstanding the majesty of its claims, frequently reminds us of the *Homunculus* of Faust, and appears to be saying to humanity:

> "Lasst mich an eurer Seite gehn;
> Mir selbst gelüstet's zu entstehn."

But such potential realities have had, ever since Aristotle, an important place in speculation, and we make no question that the paradoxes of our author's doctrine have a deep foundation in the nature of his topic.

In the further development of his ethics, Mr. Salter, despite his indifference to traditional theology, bears in many respects a strong resemblance to Bishop Butler. One is reminded of the 'Ethical Sermons' by many things in these lectures. In style, to be sure, Mr. Salter is remote enough from the slow-footed Bishop, and moves with the ease of a practised modern speaker, while in many respects his language shows the influence of Emerson. But the doctrine is often very similar to Butler's, save as to matters of theology proper. The appeal is always to the "true human conscience," which, as Mr. Salter explains in his fifth lecture, is independent in its judgments of the accidents of changing custom and opinion. Conscience, or, as Mr. Salter often prefers to call it, "the supreme thought to do what is right," counsels principles which are organizing in their nature, which are rationally supreme over the natural impulses of men's hearts, and which are still not self-executing, but need the coöperation of free agents. The supremacy of these principles is, therefore, as Butler would have said, "authority" as distinguished from "might." The principles are to be found by self-examination. No honest man can doubt them. No higher reason can be given for them than that we know them to be true (p. 70). At the same time, like Butler, our author is glad to appeal, for didactic purposes at least, to the facts of experience, in so far as they illustrate, and even sometimes seem to confirm, those moral truths which are all the while not "matters of fact" at all, but ideals. With a delight in the concrete world such as is very natural for one whose moral ideals must grow occasionally lonesome in their empty heavens, our author follows with satisfaction the partial triumph of morality which Darwinism has made plain as a tendency in human evolution. Very much in the same way, Butler, whose theology was full of somewhat disheartening problems, loved to confirm the divine authority of conscience by appeals to the facts of experience known in his day. And Mr. Salter once more reminds us of Butler in his whole bearing towards what is now called Hedonism in ethics.

We have, of course, no space to follow our author into further details. The lectures are practical discussions, whose chief value lies in the fine temperament that expresses itself in them. They touch upon many interesting modern problems, *e. g*, in the discussion of the "Rights of Labor"; although as to such matters they have possibly a tendency rather to ennoble than to enlighten Mr. Salter's audience—a criticism which we make in no captious spirit; for what else could be expected of a brief homily upon complex social problems? A still more delicate topic is treated in lectures x. and xi., on the "Ethics of Jesus," where Mr. Salter solves very well the problem of uniting plain speech and pronounced liberalism with a true seriousness of tone that ought to offend no opponent. Unitarianism is ingeniously criticised in lecture xiv., on the ground that while it is "benevolent, humane, philanthropic, as those words go," it still "does not call on us to create a new heaven and a new earth," "does not appeal to the infinite side of human nature," and is enthusiastic over such matters as "supporting old churches whose natural lives seem to be already spent." "Unitarians," says Mr. Salter, "manifest no great discontent with the world about them." These expressions show that Mr. Salter, with all his humanity and gentleness, is not incapable of making sharp speeches, and, accordingly, they rather raise our respect for the charity with which he elsewhere is wont to treat all mankind.

After all, however, the unsatisfactory thing about these excellent lectures, even regarded from the practical point of view, is just the vagueness of the author's moral theory. Morality is rooted in the "nature of things," but not in "natural law," which as such is mere dead fact. The ideal does not "exist anywhere to-day," but is for all that a "truth supreme above all." We know this to be so partly because nothing but the good can survive in the long run. But mere survival, like any other fact known to science, has of itself no moral value, and the course of the world is often unjust. Morality rests upon an "ought" which a man can find only in his own heart. Some men, indeed, *e. g.*, bad men and savages, find no such "ought," or else mistake its true character; but then such men do not count. Meanwhile, the "ought" is not merely in us. So we come back once more from what is in our hearts to that supreme "nature of things" which, nevertheless, we must not call by the name "God," except by way of conjecture or poetry, because to do so might be superstitious. Yet we must remember all the while that this supreme "nature" is nothing merely physical.

So many paradoxes together would form a more serious defect in such a work were they not, as every philosophical student knows, very deeply rooted in the nature of this most perplexing region of speculation. We call attention to them here (we repeat) for a reason as practical as Mr. Salter's own intentions. The Ethical Societies have doubtless their own mission to fulfil, and we hope that they may prosper in that mission. But if they address "men and women who are in the toil and stress of life," they also address for the most part intelligent and reflective persons who, for some reason or other, have abandoned traditional creeds. In such persons the leaders want to arouse moral enthusiasm. Would it not be well to arouse it by means of less obscure and vague accounts of what morality after all is? Noble sentiments and the "nature of things," and even the brute fact of the "survival of the fittest," may be good to appeal to in this lecture or in that; and doubtless this whole movement is more dependent on the personal power of the leaders than on any system of ideas; but is there not danger in these endless paradoxes and unexplained self-contradictions of one's teaching? Would not a systematic and even somewhat speculative theory of ethics be of use to the teacher, and that, too, even if he kept it in the background in his daily teachings? To be all things to all men is, indeed, the privilege of an apostle; but to appeal to anything and everything plausible except theology as a support to morality—is this enough? If one leaves behind what one takes to be superstitions in tradition, may not one end in making one's morality itself a superstition? And if the laymen of the Ethical Societies should chance to note such an outcome, what result could be more lamentable? We hope that Mr. Salter will soon develop the "philosophical views" of which he speaks in his preface.

THE AUSTRIAN STATE.

A History of Austro-Hungary, from the Earliest Time to the Year 1889. By Louis Leger. Translated from the French by Mrs. Birkbeck Hill, with a preface by Edward A. Freeman. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

A LITTLE more than forty years ago, the cynical Metternich wrote in a despatch, "Italy is

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only a geographical expression." No better phrase could be applied to that very Austrian Empire of which Metternich was then, in all but name, the ruler. A State made up of four distinct races—the German, the Magyar, the Slav, and the Romance—not to mention Jews and Mohammedans, and each of these races split up into smaller divisions, as (among the Slavs) the Poles, the Bohemians, the Croats, and the Slovenes—such a State has no parallel in modern times. Other governments are kept together by centripetal forces; the Austrian Government has maintained itself during the past centuries by cunningly neutralizing the centrifugal forces of its component parts. *Divide et impera* has been the motto of its statecraft. The sole continuous element in all this history is the House of Hapsburg (written Habsburg throughout this translation); and it would have been better had M. Leger made the chronicle of the Hapsburgs more prominent, and that of the Polish, Bohemian, and Magyar dynasties, which were finally absorbed by the family of the Austrian Archduke, more subordinate As it is, he is forced to bring up the history of each in sections, as a general of artillery who is short of horses has to get his batteries into line one by one. So we follow the affairs of Bohemia, for instance, from the fifteenth to the eighteenth century; then we go back to Hungary and help her forward, and so on. Perhaps this is the best method for treating so confused and artificially related topics; certainly only an historian of the first rank, a Gibbon, could succeed by the other method of progressing simultaneously along the whole line.

Owing chiefly to this confusion and to these difficulties, the history of the countries which now form the Austrian State is too little known by western Europeans and by Americans; yet it is, nevertheless, very interesting. If you draw roughly a line from the mouth of the Oder on the Baltic down to the Adriatic, you will have the frontiers along which the wave of Slavic barbarians broke when they pressed westward after the Teutonic invasions; and almost in the middle of this line the Magyars—a Mongolian race, wholly unallied to the Aryan Slavs—drove a wedge which has been the torment of central Europe for a thousand years. The customs of those tribes in their early state—the slacker influence of the old Roman civilization over them than over the Teutonic conquerors in Italy and the West; their conversion to Roman Christianity, in spite of which they retained more local independence than Germany or France in religious matters; their oscillation between the feudal conditions of the West and the Oriental conditions of the Byzantine Empire; their implacable and incessant quarrels among themselves, whereby they finally became the prey of a tyrant who could hardly have conquered one of them but for those quarrels—these are some of the general points of interest dealt with in M. Leger's book. The student of comparative government will find in it much significant material. He will find, for instance, conclusive evidence that an elective monarchy cannot be stable. The reason why Poland, and Bohemia, and Hungary, each of which States had its period of strength and brilliance, fell asunder was that no family succeeded in establishing for any long time an hereditary rule in any of them. So fierce was the rivalry among the nobles that they often chose a foreigner to be their king, and they even allied themselves with the Turks in order to gain an advantage over their Christian neighbors.

The lack of an influential *bourgeoisie*, added to this lack of dynastic solidarity, hastened the downfall. We deplore the annihilation of the Polish State, but really the Polish nobles were incapable of organizing a civilized society, and between them and the peasant serfs there was no intelligent middle class. The lesson we get from the history of Poland, Bohemia, Hungary, and Croatia is, that aristocracies cannot maintain a government adapted to the needs of the modern world. The student of religion cannot afford to neglect the Bohemian Reformation, which preceded by a century the German Reformation led by Luther, and which proved that in intelligence and spirit the Czechs (whom Mrs. Hill phonetically writes *Chekhs*) were worthy to rank with the highest races of the west, and that they might have done so but for their hopeless political condition. Finally, the economist will meet many instructive object-lessons of the banefulness of high protection, as illustrated by the misery into which the component States of the Austrian Empire were plunged whenever an unwise Emperor prohibited foreign trade. At times, the Chinese wall of protection was erected not only on the frontiers of the Austrian State and the rest of Europe, but also between one internal kingdom and another—between Bohemia and Hungary, for example—with the result of beggaring *both* Bohemia and Hungary. The annals of those countries which the Hapsburgs acquired record many heroic deeds and noble episodes; not to go back to the half-legendary Arpád, and to the early Premyslids, we have in historical times the exploits of the Jagellons, of Matthias Corvinus, of Ziska, of Zápolya, of Stephen Bathory, of John Sobieski, of Francis Rákóczy, of Gabriel Bethlen—names as familiar to Slavs or Magyars as those of Cromwell and Marlborough are to Englishmen.

In the later period of his history, from the accession of Maria Theresa down to the present time, M. Leger is usually satisfactory. His account of the reforms of Joseph II., which anticipated many of the reforms of the French Revolution, but were speedily followed by a reaction from which Austria has not yet recovered, is clear and fair. Upon occasions when French vanity or partisanship might be looked for—as in the description of Napoleon's campaigns against Austria—he displays no chauvinism. That well-known historical snarl, the revolution of 1848–'9 in the Austrian State, he disentangles very cleverly, making prominent, but not more prominent than is just, the dog-in-the-manger policy of the Magyars, through which they wrecked not only their own but the efforts of the Croats and Czechs to regain independence. The conflict between Austria and Prussia, between 1850 and 1866, is less adequately treated: a reader who relied solely upon M. Leger's book could hardly understand the relations between the members of the German Confederation, nor the intrigues by which Austria strove to prevent Prussia from usurping her supremacy. One serious defect in the book is the absence of references; many state papers are quoted, and many historians, but we are not told the work and page where we can consult the original.

Mr. Freeman, in his preface, furnishes, in that dry and condescending manner peculiar to him, some general information in regard to the proper titles of the Austrian rulers. Of course, only beginners need to be warned that the expression "German Emperor," when applied to the successors of Charlemagne, is wrong, and that "the Holy Roman Emperor" is right; or that the present Emperor of Austria is really only the Archduke of Austria, which is but a small part of his heterogeneous State. These, and similar facts, Mr. Freeman enlarges upon, perhaps more than is necessary.

The translation is by no means worthy of the substance of the book. We can excuse some awkward phrases, but there is no excuse for the confusion and blunders in the proper names. The very title, "A History of Austro-Hungary," is an absurdity; meaningless, just as "A History of Anglo-Scotland" would be. Why did not Mrs. Hill simply translate M. Leger's title, 'Histoire de l'Autriche-Hongrie'? From such a beginning we might have inferred that when Mrs. Hill came to Slav and Magyar proper names, she would lose herself in solecisms and inaccuracies. In spite of the assistance which, she says, she had from two professors, there is no uniformity, no reason, in her method. Her only rule seems to be to give the most outlandish forms which can be found. It is, admittedly, very difficult to decide how to print foreign names in English, but surely the rule of common sense is to be as simple and consistent as possible; a Polish or Magyar town which we know by its German name, or for which we have a recognized English equivalent, ought not to be given in its Polish or Magyar form. Every reader of history has heard of the Congress of Laybach, but in what history or geography accessible to English readers could we find Ljublanja? or Olomouc for Olmütz? or Brno for Brünn? or Plzn for Pilsen? or Kromerice for Kremsier? Has not Tokay wine been drunk long enough in England to make *Tokaj* look strange? And why call the patron saint of Bohemia, Vacslav? Wenceslaus is the English equivalent; and St. Vacslav (or even Wenceslaf, Mr. Freeman's version) sounds as odd as St. Istvan for St. Stephen. Occasionally Mrs. Hill invents a form of her own, as when she translates the French *Gorice*, Gorica; and she keeps to no single form even when she retains the Slav or Magyar spelling. Two, and sometimes three, varieties of spelling are met with, often on the same page. Thus Casimir is turned into Kazimir (p. 203) and Kasimir (p. 212); Zara is Jadera or Jadara; Ladislaus is Vladislav, Wladyslaw, and Ladislas; Peterwardein is Petervarad and Petervardin; Lemberg is Liwow, Lwow, and Lwów; the Magyar *fo ispan* has several variations, viz.: *föispan* and *főispanak*. German words are treated with equal carelessness; here are a few blunders: Insbrück (p. 16); Landesauschuss (p. 511); Windischgratz (p. 530, 545); Zwetschgen (p. 363); Küfstein (p. 413); Wittenburg (p. 323); Königsburg (p. 105, 423). Italian words are also twisted, as for example, Montecuculli (p. 272); condottiero (p. 319); Scarlati (p. 281); Guistiniani (p. 266); Guastella (p. 457); I Miei (for *Le mie*) Prigioni (p. 471); Bocche *de* (for *di*) Cattaro (p. 585); and we are to choose between Capristan (on p. 207) and Capistrano (p. 235). We find, further, such forms as Paskievitch, Schwartzenburg, Machiavelian, Parthenopian, Egean. There are three allowable forms of the Rhenish town and former electorate—Mainz (German), Mayence (French), and Mentz (English); Mrs. Hill invents a hybrid form, Maintz (p. 106). So, too, she wavers between Basel (p. 126) and Basle (p. 405). Eugene being an English name, it is just as unnecessary to write "Prince Eugène" as to write "Albrecht" for "Albert." Why prefer the Latin Misnia to Meissen, Moldava to Moldau, Tisza to Theiss? Would a letter addressed to Dubrornik reach Ragusa, or one to Rieka reach Fiume?

These examples of verbal inaccuracies and inconsistencies must suffice. Misstatements of fact are more serious, and of these we must mention a few: Rhine for Danube (p. 17); Henry IV. for VI. (p. 99); *Ulrich* for *Wolfram* of Eschenbach (p. 124); Reinar for Reimar (p. 139). Pius II. died in 1464, therefore he

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could not have excommunicated the Bohemian King in 1468 (p. 210). Charles of Anjou did not defeat both Conradin and Manfred in 1268, but the former only, the latter having been killed in 1266 (p. 218). Comenius died in 1671, not in 1670 (p. 306). Wallenstein took the title of "Admiral [not General] of the Baltic" (p. 307). Zápolya died in 1540, not in 1560 (p. 316). Maria Louisa did not retire to Schönbrunn after Napoleon's first abdication, but to Parma (p. 457). The battle of Metz was fought in 1870, not in 1871 (p. 540). The Franco-Prussian war was in 1870-71, not in 1861 (p. 587). Felix von Schwarzenberg died in 1852, not in 1853 (p. 554). Sadowa was fought July 3, not July 4 (p 569), Lissa July 20, not 16. The preliminaries of peace were signed at Nikolsburg, July 26, not 16, and the peace of Prague August 23, not 3 (p. 570). The date of Solferino is June 24, not June 23 (p. 559).

Convenient tables of sovereigns and of the territorial losses and gains of the Hapsburgs are appended; also an ethnographical map of Austria-Hungary, but its colors are so indistinct as to make it of little value. Four or five good maps showing the extent of the various kingdoms at critical periods would be better than many pages of print. If Mrs. Hill will correct the errors in date and fact, and if she will adopt a uniform spelling for her foreign names—keeping the forms already Anglicized, and preferring those familiar to western Europeans rather than those which only a Slav or a Magyar would recognize—the future editions of her translation will be useful alike to the student and to the general reader. So much good material concerning the history of the Austrian State cannot be found in any other popular work with which we are acquainted.

Narrative and Critical History of America. Edited by Justin Winsor. Vol. VIII. The Later History of British, Spanish, and Portuguese America. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

IN this last volume of a magnificent series the editor bears, as usual, the laboring oar, not only maintaining the critical and bibliographical portion, but contributing to the narrative, with chapter iv., on Spanish North America. Spanish South America's colonial history and wars of independence are summed up by Clements R. Markham, but the history of Brazil is allotted no treatment separate from the bibliography, and is accordingly looked after in small type by Mr. Winsor. Mr. Markham's strait-jacket of 48 pages of large print (really only about 25 or 30 when the illustrations are deducted) implies a very condensed relation, and Mr. Winsor's supplementary bibliographical note is hardly adequate. Thus, Markham mentions the great Paez, the heroic companion and equal of Bolivar, in but a single line, when his elevation to the Presidency of Venezuela is recorded without any characterization whatever. The romance of Paez's life has not been surpassed by that of any historical American—the moral greatness by few—and he wrote his autobiography while living in this city in 1867. Gervinus had already held him up for admiration in his 'Geschichte des neunzehnten Jahrhunderts.' Neither of these works is referred to by Mr. Winsor, and no one consulting the volume before us would suspect Paez of being anything but a political name—say the Franklin Pierce of a line of Presidents, instead of a Washington. This instance is typical of the defects of the coöperative method of writing history.

There is another instance in the account of Canada from 1763 to 1867, by Prof. George Bryce of Manitoba College. Prof. Bryce knows of no settlement on the River St. John, N. B., except of refugee loyalists—"a military section" of these. This ignores the interesting colony planted in 1763-'4 near Fredericton by voluntary emigrants from Essex Co., Mass., and which was so far from being loyalist that it made its own Declaration of Independence in 1776 before that at Philadelphia, and entreated help from Massachusetts, holding out till British war-vessels came up the river and made resistance hopeless. Glimpses of this settlement are to be had from Hatheway's rare little 'History of New Brunswick,' as well as from the Stickney Genealogy; and the effort to save the St. John and New Brunswick to the future territory of the United States has been authoritatively shown by Frederick Kidder in his 'Military Operations in Eastern Maine and Nova Scotia during the Revolution.' Prof. Bryce is his own bibliographer, and in his long note on the sources we can detect neither Hatheway nor Kidder. Before passing from this chapter, we may remark also the scanty mention of the case of the *Caroline* in the Canadian rebellion—an affair which came near embroiling us with our neighbors and with England. To be sure, it is the subject of a diplomatic footnote in vol. vii., but one could not infer from either narrative how great an excitement was caused by it on both sides of the border.

There remain to be enumerated two of the most readable chapters, having well-defined topics replete with picturesqueness and adventure, namely, "The Hudson Bay Company," by the Rev. Geo. E. Ellis, and "Arctic Exploration in the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries," by Charles C. Smith. Our sole comment on these will be a pictorial one: the portrait of Capt. Cook on page 82 is taken from a French edition of his Third Voyage (1783), instead of the well-known engraving from the standard English oil portrait. In this case the authentic has been sacrificed to the curious; and the criticism we believe to hold good of not a few of the portraits in this series. To the professional iconographer no plate is indifferent, but in an historical work the best should steadily be preferred, unless in the case of a person of whom good likenesses abound and are readily procurable, when, of course, a rare one may be properly rescued from oblivion. In portraiture, charts, views, etc., this final volume, it should be said, is as well equipped as any, and Mr. Winsor shines in his chapter on the historical chorography of South America.

His *pièce de résistance*, however, is his Appendix, with its all but one hundred closely printed pages, indicating the MS. and printed sources of United States history. This is simply invaluable, no matter what shortcomings may be discovered in it—and we should put first of all the absence of bold topical headlines, or some sort of an index. This laborious guide to the student and bookmaker is followed, and the volume concluded, by a very full and convenient "Chronological Conspectus of American History," beginning with Homer's geographical views in the tenth century. This is really an index, for each event entered has its reference to the text, and its limitations arise from that cause. Thus, to take the year 1865, we have only these three items: "Faillon begins his record of the Sulpitian labors in Montreal in his *Colonie Française en Canada*"; "Reciprocity Treaty between U. S. and Canada"; "*Life and Public Services of Samuel Adams* published." The downfall of the rebellion and the death of Lincoln are excluded by the scheme of the Conspectus.

We must say a word of the General Index, which does indeed cover the whole eight volumes, but by no means swallows up or supersedes the several volume indexes. The case of the *Caroline* is again in point, being omitted here, though indexed in the seventh volume. We understand perfectly well the enormous labor and expense and the chance of error involved in an attempt to combine so many indexes, and we regret without reproaches its abandonment. No little service has been rendered under the rubrics Colleges, Discoverers, Forts, Indians, Lakes, Maps and Mapmakers, Military Events, Periodicals, Portraits and Statues, Portraitists, Religious Bodies, Rivers and their Valleys, Societies, Treaties, Conventions and Conferences, United States, etc. To crown the whole, we would have had at the end a *table des matières*, for the several tables of contents are typographically confused, and the title-pages by no means sufficiently enlightening—the backs of the covers not at all so, being distinguished only by the numerals.

Mr. Winsor and his colaborers can never be adequately either thanked or rewarded for their high and scholarly endeavors; but they have made their monument. The editor himself, unexhausted, is, as our readers are aware, already on the eve of producing a work embracing all we know (and more than any one person knows) about Columbus.

Catalogue of the Fossil Fishes in the British Museum (Natural History). Part I., Elasmobranchii. By Arthur Smith Woodward, F.G.S., F.Z.S. London: Printed by order of the Trustees. 1889. 8vo, with cuts and seventeen plates, pp. xlvii, 474.

THIS catalogue is made up from the specimens in the British Museum and from the many scattered notes, references, and descriptions in the literature. The skeletons being cartilaginous and perishable, the species are usually represented by the teeth—frequently by a single tooth, rarely by an approach to a complete set; and as these differ in shapes and sizes in the two jaws, as also on different parts of each jaw, the difficulty in identifying a species and determining its affinities is often excessive if not impossible. In view of the arduous nature of his task, of the fact that this is a first attempt, not a revision, and of the manner in which he has carried through an undertaking of so much importance in zoölogy and geology, we are inclined to praise the author very highly, numerous points to which we should take exception notwithstanding.

The Elasmobranchii are here placed as a subclass under the fishes, and divided into two orders—the Selachii, including the sharks and the skates, and the Ichthyotomi, which he characterizes as follows: "Endoskeletal cartilage permeated throughout with granular calcifications. Notochord rarely or never constricted; calcifications of the sheath arrested at the most primitive 'rhachitomous' stage, except in the caudal region. Neural and haemal arches and spines long and slender; no intercalary cartilages. Pectoral fins with long segmented axis ('archipterygial')." The original Ichthyotomi were characterized thus: "A basioccipital bone and condyle. Occipital, ? pterotic, and frontal bones distinct. Supraorbital (or nasal) bones present." Like others, Mr. Woodward rejects the idea that there are distinct bones in the skull, but, with different characters and contents, clings to an old name for his group, though certain to produce confusion by doing so. He includes the Pleuracanthidae (*Xenacanthi*), from which the features are taken, and the Cladodonti, which

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will not agree in the more essential points, though likely to do so in those common to all the early types. By this the Cladodonts are put in a different order from that of their descendants among recent sharks.

Zoölogists will regret that the author did not use his opportunity to dispense with much that is inconsistent and arbitrary in the nomenclature. A proper application of the rules of priority, by himself invoked in places, would displace 22 of the 105 generic names adopted. Add to this several names wrongly credited as to authorities, ten dated (from their third publication) 1841 instead of 1837, two others dated 1841 instead of 1838, etc., and one may get an idea of some of the possibilities in misleading.

From the condition of the specimens, there are many cases in which identification must remain doubtful until further discoveries. Species of this character were better kept separate; for throwing them together as identical may have the force of positive recognition in preventing study by others and thus perpetuating error. As a whole, the work is very commendable, the objectionable features being made the more prominent on this account.

Our Asiatic Cousins. By Mrs. A. H. Leonowens. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

THIS illustrated duodecimo volume tells the children about the people in the various countries of Asia, from the Phœnicians to the Japanese. No fewer than eighteen nations are described with some detail. The human and personal traits occupy most of the author's attention, though history and traditions are not forgotten. Having herself lived in one of the countries of peninsular Asia, Muang Thai, or Siam, the author has read her authorities with more sympathy and intelligence than the average maker of books for the young. The result is a very readable book, and one calculated to interest boys and girls. The slovenliness in transliteration and inaccuracies which abound are therefore all the more inexcusable; nor will the attempt to make Asiatic lore interesting succeed very well while so many uncouth names, hideous misprints, and the orthographical vagaries of all grades of European authors, in several languages, are left in an English book. Apparently the author has sought out the most bizarre spelling possible, as Ibrhi for Hebrews, Areib for Arabia, T'sing T'song T'sue for the Chinese, Siet-Eish-Ieu for Japan, etc., etc. This is cruelty to the innocents. The history of Asian kingdoms is repulsive enough without such orthographic caricature. A list of misstatements and strangely mistaken ideas found in the author's pages would be formidably long. She calls Corea "the chosen land," evidently taking the native term Chō-sen (morning-calm) as an English word meaning elect. The same dynasty under different names has ruled this peninsular country for three thousand years, according to the author, which is as true as if a similar statement were made about Great Britain. The Corean names, like the Japanese, are nearly unrecognizable; Hainang Seyool for Han-yang Séoul, T'siangtouwini for Tseng-hou-ui, Khanghon for Kang-hoa; Rose for Roze, the French Admiral's name; Jummi for Jimmu, Jeengho for Jingu, Ohjeeu for Ojin, etc., etc. The statement about the Aino tongue (p. 280) is several years behind the facts, while that about the ronin (p. 301) twenty years after date. Hara Kari should be harakiri. The sacred lake, "overhung for miles with bamboo trellis-work, over which droop vast clusters of wistaria forming an unbroken roof along its banks, under which are placed all kinds of floating pavilions," etc., etc., which the author locates "at Tokio," is a myth, though the original of this marvellous phantasmagoria may possibly be the pond at Uyéno, or Kaméido.

In many respects, Mrs. Leonowens's book is admirable, and is well worth revision and representation. We have pointed out only a few of scores of errors which detract greatly from its value.

The Campaign of Königgrätz: A Study of the Austro-Prussian Conflict in the light of the American Civil War. By Arthur L. Wagner, 1st lieut. 6th U. S. Infty., &c. 12mo, pp. 121.

LIEUT. WAGNER, the author of this little book, is one of the instructors at the United States Infantry and Cavalry School at Fort Leavenworth. It had its origin in a lecture on the Königgrätz campaign of 1866, the "six weeks' war," in which Prussia first took the place of the leading military Power of Europe. The lecture has been wisely expanded into the neat volume before us, and has been illustrated with a profusion of maps unprecedented in American publications; a round dozen of general and special maps enabling the reader to follow with unusual ease the military narrative.

The material for the Königgrätz or Sadowa campaign is so abundant and authentic that the author's chief labor was to make a judicious condensation from the Prussian Staff History, Hosier's two volumes, and other special treatises. But it is no trifling task to make a readable and clear sketch of so great events within the limits which Lieut. Wagner had assigned himself, and he deserves the high praise of saying that it has been done thoroughly and intelligently. If, then, this had been the whole, the abridgment of the history of the great campaign would entitle him to the thanks of his readers, and especially of his brother officers in the army, for a compact and cheap means of acquaintance with events which in Europe ushered in a new epoch in military affairs.

Lieut. Wagner has done more than this. He has, as commentator upon the campaign, pointed out the numerous instances in which our own civil war furnished important military lessons which the Germans learned from our experience, when they did not, by a more costly method, discover for themselves the improvements and inventions, in tactics and in arms, in which we had anticipated them. These portions of the book, though brief, do equal credit to the author's acumen and to his patriotism. They give it an original value far beyond that of any mere abridgment, however well done. They show that some, at least, of our young officers are studying our own history, in comparison with others, with an intelligent and thoughtful analysis which produces valuable fruit, and which will do much to teach the world that our civil war is, as a military history, well worth studying. It proves also that there may be found in this history higher examples of tactical combinations and field fighting than would be possible if veteran skill and courage in the ranks had not been led by generals of really great ability.

Inorganic Chemistry. By Ira Remsen, Professor of Chemistry in the Johns Hopkins University. Henry Holt & Co.

THIS volume forms the "advanced course" of the series of chemical text-books by Prof. Remsen. While the others are small books of 266 and 382 pages, respectively, the one before us is a portly volume of over 800 pages. It is in no sense, however, a mere expansion of its predecessors. Its distinctive feature is the fulness with which general relations and principles are discussed. "Attention is constantly called to analogies between properties of substances and between chemical reactions," and the importance of the bearing of the phenomena accompanying chemical changes on the interpretation of chemical action is continually emphasized. Prominence is naturally given to the general relations discovered by the periodic law, and for the first time we have a considerable text-book whose classification is based on this law. To the periodic system itself a chapter of fourteen pages is devoted, in which three tables, showing as many of the proposed arrangements of the elements, are included. A generous appendix gives details of laboratory experiments (244 in number) in illustration of the text, and contains all but 14 of the 78 cuts. This plan of bringing together, at the end of the book, descriptions of apparatus and directions for experimental work, makes a more connected and logical text possible, and in such a work as this is much to be commended.

On pages 461 and 462 the author proposes an interesting hypothesis in regard to the constitution of the double salts of the halogens. Calling attention to the analogy between these salts and the oxygen salts, and finding as the result of careful study "that the number of molecules of potassium or sodium chloride which combine with another chloride is limited by the number of chlorine atoms contained in the other chloride," he makes the suggestion "that the halogen contained in them [the double salts] has a valence greater than one, and that a double atom" of the halogen "plays the same part that oxygen does in the oxygen salts." He thus assumes the power of two halogen atoms to unite with the formation of a bivalent group, such as -Cl-Cl-or -Cl=Cl-, and this group is considered to act like the linking oxygen atom in oxygen salts. The formula for the double chloride of sodium and aluminium, ($NaCl.\ AlCl_3$) for example, therefore becomes $Na(Cl_2)AlCl_2$, analogous to that of sodium aluminate $NaAlO_2$ or NaOAlO. On this hypothesis the double chlorides are chloro-salts, and the name of that just given in illustration would be sodium chloraluminate. The evidence on which this view rests has, since the appearance of this volume, been fully presented by Prof. Remsen in the *American Chemical Journal*, and is certainly very strong. But in this, as in all other matters of theory, the author is singularly and admirably free from dogmatism. He discusses the bearing of the facts in evidence in an eminently cautious and philosophical manner, and insists on the tentative, and even speculative, character of many of the theoretical explanations which are given. This conservatism is perhaps most strongly marked in the treatment of the constitution of compounds. Structural formulas receive considerable attention, but in every case the facts which they are intended to represent are given, and the student is made to see clearly just how much and how little they really express.

The style of the book is that of the lecture rather than that of the treatise, and Prof. Remsen is well known as an excellent lecturer. If, in some instances, the text seems unnecessarily simple, it is a fault which the student will readily forgive. As in his former books, the author shows here that he thinks clear and straight, appreciates the difficulties of the student, and knows how to meet them in plain, direct statement and discussion. It is a book which no advanced student of chemistry should

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fail to read. It will clear his vision and prove helpful and suggestive at many points.

One does not expect the first edition of a book of this scope to be wholly free from mistakes in matters of detail, and the 'Inorganic Chemistry' contains its full share. We had noted a considerable list, but they are for the most part in matters of minor importance, and do not seriously impair the value of the work.

Essays on the Work entitled Supernatural Religion. Reprinted from the *Contemporary Review.* By J. B. Lightfoot, D.D., D.C.L., LL.D., Bishop of Durham. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

A Reply to Dr. Lightfoot's Essays. By the Author of 'Supernatural Religion.' Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

THE author of 'Supernatural Religion' made a double mistake when he was so rash as to charge Prof. Westcott with a literary and controversial dishonesty. It was bad enough that, in doing so, he made it evident that his own scholarship was not sufficient to save him from such a blunder as confounding *oratio obliqua* with direct narration, and taking an infinitive for an indicative. But it was still worse for him that this wanton attack roused a friend of Dr. Westcott's, who has long been known as one of the greatest of English scholars, to take in hand the loose and pretentious 'Supernatural Religion,' and riddle it with criticism. Bishop Lightfoot's articles in the *Contemporary* may almost be said to have given the book its death-blow, for it soon passed out of sight, much discredited so far as its critical value and its scholarship were concerned. These articles, together with one on "Some Discoveries illustrating the Acts of the Apostles," make up the first of the two volumes that we have in hand. They do not call for any extended notice, for most students of the New Testament are, we fancy, already familiar with them. To such as do not know them it may be said that, although they are incomplete, and in some sort almost fragmentary, they are precious as the work of a man of vast learning, whose criticism is both acute and enlightening. Such a paper as that which stands second in this volume, on "The Silence of Eusebius," is an example of an almost faultless critical method, as well as a model of controversial writing.

Not so much as this, nor half so much, can be said of the author of the 'Reply.' He chose to make serious charges on the strength of passages which, it has been shown, he misunderstood not because they are obscure, but because they are written in Latin and Greek. No outcry about pedantry can help his case. Indeed, he half gives up the case himself by silently withdrawing or changing parts of his book which his opponent had fatally shaken. He falls back at last upon his inner line of defence, the antecedent incredibility of miracle, which remains just about as strong as Hume left it and this author found it. One thing he has added, not in this volume, but in 'Supernatural Religion' itself: that is, a setting forth in a more vivid way than we remember to have seen elsewhere the universality of the belief in miracles, and the constant expectation of them, in Judæa in the time of Christ. The air was charged with miracle, and a new religion arising at that time would be certain to claim divine attestations of this sort.

When Dr. Lightfoot's book appeared some months ago, it was hailed by many as an assurance of the recovery of the Bishop of Durham from an illness that threatened a great loss to English learning. Unhappily the event has not justified the hopes that then sprang up, for Dr. Lightfoot died on December 21, 1889.

D. M. Ausonii Mosella. Édition critique et traduction française. Par H. de la Ville de Mirmont. Bordeaux: G. Gounouilhou. 1889.

BORDEAUX has always been proud of her poet, a fact attested by a long line of students of Ausonius who have lived and worked in his birthplace. Not one of them all was ever more painstaking than the present editor, and his book has been evidently a labor of love. It differs from most critical editions in an important point: the editor disclaims personal acquaintance with the MSS., but accepts the collations of Schenkl and Peiper upon which to base his studies. In a doctoral thesis he has already considered important questions relating to the verse-structure, date, and style of the poem. In the present work he concentrates his attention upon the printed texts of the 'Mosella.' In an introduction covering two-thirds of his book he gives a full literary history of them all, with a most minute collation of their differences, and five facsimile pages from the most important early editions. Then follows the poem itself, that polished and often beautiful description of the Moselle country. To this is added a French prose translation of merit, a critical appendix, and full explanatory notes. A new map of the country is provided. Ausonius is an author very little known in this country, but to his readers this edition will be a perfect storehouse of materials and information. It is printed on fine large paper, and the press-work is most artistically executed.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, G. Falling in Love, with Other Essays on More Exact Branches of Science. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.

Brace, C. L. The Unknown God; or, Inspiration among Pre-Christian Races. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $2.50.

Carroll, L. Sylvie and Bruno. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.

Catherwood, Mrs. Mary H. The Story of Tonty. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.

Fothergill, Dr. J. M. The Town Dweller: His Needs and his Wants. D. Appleton & Co. $1.

Henry Irving Shakspere. Vol. VII. Scribner & Welford. $3.

Ibsen, H. Prose Dramas. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.

Lagrange, Dr. F. Physiology of Bodily Exercise. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75

Souvenir Volume of the Centennial Celebration and the Catholic Congress, 1789–1889. Detroit: Wm. H. Hughes. $2.50.

Stedman, E. C., and Hutchinson, Ellen M. Library of American Literature. Vol. X. Chas. L. Webster & Co.

Steele, J. Old Californian Days. Belford, Clarke & Co.

Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXI. Garnett—Gloucester. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.

Stokes, W. Supplement to the Anglo-Indian Codes, 1887, 1888. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Swinburne, A. C. A Study of Ben Jonson. Worthington & Co.

ales from Blackwood. Third Series. White & Allen.

Taylor, W. F. England under Charles II. (1660–1678). Extracts from Contemporary Records. London: David Nutt.

Tennyson, A. Demeter, and Other Poems. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.

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